Criminal Victimisation in International Perspective, Key findings from the 2004-2005 ICVS and EU ICS

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Key findings from the 2004-2005 ICVS and EU ICS

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Preface

The International Crime Victims Survey became operational in 1989. The main object was to seek advancement in international comparative criminological research, beyond the constraints of officially recorded crime data. The next sweeps of the ICVS surveys took place in 1992, 1996 and 2000. With its fifth sweep in 2005 the initiative has developed into a truly unique global project. Over a time span of fifteen years more than 300,000 people were interviewed about their experiences with victimisation and related subjects in 78 different countries. This report describes the 2004 – 2005 sweep of surveys in 30 countries and 33 capital or main cities and compares results with those of earlier sweeps. A large portion of the latest data in this report comes from the European Survey on Crime and Safety (EU ICS), organised by a consortium lead by Gallup Europe, co-financed by the European Commission's Directorate General for Research and Technology Development.

The ICVS is the most comprehensive instrument developed yet to monitor and study volume crimes, perception of crime and attitudes towards the criminal justice system in a comparative, international perspective. The data are from surveys amongst the general public and therefore not influenced by political or ideological agendas of governments of individual countries. Standardisation of questionnaires used and other aspects of data collection assure that data can, within confidence margins, be reliably compared across countries. Independent reviews have attested to the comparability of ICVS results (e.g. Lynch, 2006).

The ICVS started in 1989 in 14 industrialised countries. City surveys were also piloted in Warsaw, Poland and Surabaya, Indonesia. Already in the second sweep coverage was enlarged by including several countries in Eastern Central Europe. Fieldwork in some of these countries was funded by the Ministry for Development Aid of the Netherlands. For these countries the project played a part in the process of modernising criminal justice systems after Western European models. Many of those countries have now become part of the European Union.

Where most industrialised countries have a long tradition of publishing statistics on police-recorded crime, in many developing countries crime data are either fragmented, of poor quality or not available to the public. Crime victim surveys in these countries, although restricted to the capital or main cities, is often the only available source of statistical information on crime and victimisation.

Internationally comparable crime victim surveys not only serve policy purposes but make data available that can be used by researchers interested in crime in a comparative context, including in developing countries from different regions of the world. It should be noted, however, that

most of the resources and interest for victim surveys are still concentrated in the industrialised world, thus the available information covered by this report predominantly originates from European countries.

Acknowledgments

The ICVS 2004-05 involved a huge collaborative effort. The authors wish to express their sincere thanks to all people who, at any stage, contributed to this endeavour. Thanks go in the first place to the interviewers who spent weeks on the phone or walked through cities knocking on doors and interviewing people face to face, as well as supervisors, data clerks, statisticians and other people involved in the fieldwork.

Beyond the most prominent organisations and people involved in the ICVS 2004-05 and all those who contributed their data, who get full recognition in the introductory chapter of this report, the authors wish to acknowledge a few who deserve special credit.

Martin Killias, one of the founding fathers of the ICVS; Pat Mayhew, a driving force from the first moment (it is the first time she is not co-authoring the key results of the ICVS); Directors and staff members of the United Nations Interregional Criminal Justice Research Institute in Turin, Italy, for their continued support to the ICVS; Mariano Ciafardini and Daniel Fernández from the Argentinean Ministry of Justice, who not only carried out their own surveys but gave tremendous support to the researchers who conducted ICVS-based crime surveys elsewhere in Latin America; Beaty Naudé and Johan Prinsloo from the Institute for Criminological Sciences, University of South Africa in Pretoria, for their ICVS related work in the Southern African region; Roderic Broadhurst, currently with the Queensland University of Technology, who funded and coordinated the survey in Hong Kong and conducted two surveys in Cambodia.

Furthermore the authors wish to thank various colleagues working for agencies in the United Kingdom, Finland, the Netherlands, USA, Poland, Estonia, Australia and Canada for their continuing support, which gave the ICVS the opportunity to collect comparable and reliable data on trends in actual crime and related issues that have not been collected before.

Finally, many thanks to the reviewers of an earlier draft for their frank and very helpful criticisms.

Contents

Summary

Introduction and methodology
This report presents the key results of the crime victim surveys that were carried out as part of the fifth sweep of the International Crime Victim Surveys conducted in 2004/2005. A large portion of the these data are derived from the European Survey on Crime and Safety (EU ICS), organised by a consortium lead by Gallup Europe and co-financed by the European Commission, DGRTD. Wherever possible, results on 2004 have been compared with results from surveys carried out in earlier rounds since 1989.

The ICVS project was started back in 1989 because there was a need for reliable crime statistics that could be used for international comparisons. Statistics on police-recorded crimes cannot be used for this purpose because the legal definitions of the crimes differ across countries. Besides, there are large differences in willingness of the public to report crimes to the police. Recording practices and counting rules of the police vary greatly as well. Results of nation-specific crime victim surveys have become the preferred source of information on levels of crime in many developed countries. However, surveys such as the National Crime Victim Survey in the USA and the British Crime Survey differ in questionnaires and other key design features to the extent that results are incomparable across countries. The International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS) is a programme of sample surveys to look at householders' experiences with crime with the use of standardised questionnaires and other design elements. Reviews by independent scholars have confirmed that ICVS results are more comparable across nations than those of nation-specific surveys (Lynch, 2006).
Nevertheless, the limits of the ICVS must also be recognised. Full standardisation of all design aspects has proven to be unattainable, especially if surveys in developing countries are included. Although there are no reasons to assume that comparability has in any way been systematically compromised, divergent design features such as the mode of interviewing and the period in which the fieldwork was done, may have affected results of individual countries in unknown ways. Also, since the samples interviewed were relatively small (2000 in most countries and 800 in most cities), all estimates are subject to sampling error.
The ICVS and EU ICS cover ten conventional crimes, broken down into vehicle related crimes (theft of a car, theft from a car, theft of a motorcycle or moped, theft of a bicycle), burglary, attempted burglary, theft of personal property and contact crimes (robbery, sexual offences and assault & threat). In most countries in this report, questions have been added to the questionnaire on experiences with street level corruption, consumer fraud, including internet-based fraud and credit card theft, drug-related problems and hate crime. For most categories of crime trends over time can be studied in a broad selection of countries. Other subjects

covered by the questionnaire are reporting to the police, satisfaction with the police, distribution and need of victim support, fear of crime, use of preventive measures and attitudes towards sentencing.

This report presents data from 30 countries, including the majority of developed nations. Also the data from 33 main cities of a selection of developed and developing countries are presented in this report. Altogether data are presented from 38 different countries. For the first time data are available on Hong Kong (Special Administrative Region of China – SAR China) and Istanbul (Turkey). Surveys were also done in Mexico, Johannesburg (Republic of South Africa – RSA), Lima (Peru), Buenos Aires (Argentina), Sao Paulo & Rio de Janeiro (Brazil), Phnom Penh (Cambodia) and Maputo (Mozambique). In the tables and graphs results of developed countries are presented as a special subcategory.

Victimisation by any common crime
On average, an estimated 16% of the population in the 30 nations participating in the country level surveys have been a victim of at least one of any of ten common crimes in the course of last year (mainly 2003 or 2004). The countries with the highest scores are Ireland, England & Wales, New Zealand and Iceland. Lowest overall victimisation rates are found in Spain, Japan, Hungary and Portugal. Most of the countries about which trend data are available show a distinct downward trend in the level of victimisation since 1995 or 2000 (see below for details).

Victimisation in the main cities in developed countries is about one fourth higher on average than in countries (19.9% per year). The main cities in developing countries show much higher victimisation rates on average. At the top of the list are Phnom Penh, Maputo, and Buenos Aires. Johannesburg and the two cities in Brazil show percentages at a European level. The cities in developed countries with the lowest victimisation rates are Hong Kong, Lisbon, Budapest, Athens and Madrid. Highest victimisation rates are found in London and Tallinn.

Victimisation by vehicle related crimes
Theft of bicycles and motorcycles are highest in countries where such vehicles are the most common. In countries where bicycles are most popular, like the Netherlands and Denmark, rates of bicycle theft are very high. In some South European countries many young people drive a scooter which goes together with large numbers of thefts of motorcycles. Theft of a car is a more complicated issue, it is most common in countries that combine high ownership rates and low alternative means of transport (bicycles and motorcycles/mopeds), but this rule does not hold up completely. Theft is highest in England & Wales and New Zealand but only just above average in the USA and Australia.

Cars are stolen for two main reasons. Professionals steal cars and strip them to sell spare parts or to give a car a complete new identity. This kind of theft is generally well organised. Another motive for stealing cars is temporary transportation or joyriding. In recent years overall rates of car theft have gone down almost everywhere. Trend data on 13 countries show that this downward trend is fully caused by a drop in the less professional forms such as theft for joyriding. Anti-theft devices limiting easy opportunities for amateur thieves seem to be the most likely explanation for this universal drop.

Victimisation by burglary and other theft
On average, 1.8% of households in the 30 countries have seen their houses burgled in the course of the last year. This type of crime is most common in England & Wales, New Zealand, Mexico and Denmark. The figure stays below one percent in Sweden, Spain, Finland, Austria and Germany. Rates of burglary in the main cities in developed countries are on average higher (2.3%). Four cities in developing countries stand out, Phnom Penh, Maputo, Lima and Johannesburg show victimisation rates higher than in any city in a developed country.

Attempted burglaries show similar patterns as completed burglaries. The main differences are that, compared to the number of completed burglaries, Luxembourg, Belgium, Northern Ireland, Austria and the Netherlands have quite many attempted burglaries. Compared to attempted burglaries, completed burglaries were relatively prevalent in Denmark and Estonia.

Theft of personal property has the highest victimisation rate of the ten common crimes under investigation. Almost 4% of the population in the thirty countries and 6% in the main cities have fallen victim to a simple theft in 2003/04. Rates of theft lie above 6% in Ireland, Iceland and England & Wales and below 1% in Japan. Phnom Penh, Lima and London are the cities with the highest rates of theft of personal property, above 10%. Lisbon, Rio de Janeiro and Sao Paulo show figures below 3%.
A special type of theft is pickpocketing which makes up about half of all thefts of personal property in the developed countries. The pattern is quite similar to that of general thefts except that Greece and Estonia join the ranks of countries with high victimisation in this respect. In Phnom Penh, Lima and Maputo, pickpocketing makes up the larger part of all thefts of personal property. Victimisation rates are 10% or higher.

Victimisation by contact crimes
On average 1% of the population is victimised by robbery in countries and 2.4% in the main cities. This breaks down in 1.4% in the main cities in developed countries and 6.1% in developing countries. Highest victimisa-

tion rates are found in Mexico and in the main cities in other developing countries. Only Phnom Penh is within the range of cities in developed countries. In Japan and Hong Kong robberies are rare (victimisation rates below 0.5%).

Measuring sexual offences has proven to be difficult because of cultural differences in what type of behaviour is perceived by female respondents to constitute an offence. To minimise cultural bias in the results, the report focuses on rates of sexual crimes, whereby the victim has been physically assaulted. Above one percent of the female respondents in the USA, Iceland, Sweden and Northern Ireland indicated to have been a victim of a sexual assault in 2003/04. Less than 0.1% did so in Hungary and Mexico. Victimisation in main cities is not much more common than in the countries as a whole. The city of Maputo shows the highest victimisation rates with a victimisation rate just below 2%. As said, results on sexual victimisation must be interpreted with great caution.

Assault & threat is the most frequent of the three contact crimes. Actual assaults make up less than half of the incidents. The other incidents are threats including those with the use of a weapon. Cultural differences may play a role in perceptions of what constitutes a violent crime but probably less so than in the case of sexual offences. Populations in main cities experience much higher rates of victimisation by violent crime than people living elsewhere in the country. Johannesburg has victimisation rates for assault & threats of over 10% per year. Northern Ireland, Iceland, Ireland, England & Wales, New Zealand and the Netherlands are the countries with rates above 4%. Lowest rates are found in Portugal, Italy and Japan (below 1%).

According to the survey gun ownership is more common in the USA (29% of households) than in Western Europe (4). Both robberies and threats & assaults are more likely to involve guns in the USA than in Europe.

Victimisation by non-conventional crimes
Over one in ten of the people have on average been a victim of consumer fraud in the course of one year. Estonia, Greece and Bulgaria stand out with rates of over 20%. At the other end of the scale, Japan has less than 2% victims. Victimisation rates in the cities are higher, with Phnom Penh and Maputo showing the highest rates. Consumer fraud is the only crime type for which rates of victimisation in Hong Kong are above the average of the participating countries.

Victims of consumer fraud were asked whether the incident had involved buying goods over the internet. 9% mentioned that it happened while shopping on the internet. This implies that over a twelve month period 1%

of the national respondents have been victimised by fraud on the internet. Victimisation by this type of crime is most common in the USA (3.3%), Poland, Germany, Bulgaria and the United Kingdom. Among the cities, Lima and London stand out with highest rates of victimisation.

In a separate question respondents were also asked whether the reported consumer fraud had been a case of credit card fraud. Nationally 7% said it was. In main cities 10% of fraud victims said it was credit card fraud. This implies victimisation rates for credit card fraud of 0.9% nationwide and 1.5% in main cities respectively. The highest percentage of respondents victimised by credit card fraud were found in London (7.5%) and New York (4.5%). Internet-based frauds and frauds with credit cards have become much-occurring crimes and may soon develop into one of the most common types of property crime, overtaking traditional forms such as pickpocketing or theft from cars.

The level of experiences with bribe-taking or bribe-seeking by public officials (street level corruption) remains very low, 1% or less, in the industrialised countries. But public officials seeking bribes are comparatively common in Greece and in the countries in Eastern Central Europe that have recently joined the European Union. Levels of corruption are also high in the main cities outside the Western world. Analysis showed that the level of corruption as measured in the ICVS is strongly correlated with the scores on the composite index of perceived corruption published annually by Transparency International.

The EU ICS contained a broadly defined question about experiences with crimes motivated by hatred because of race, religion or sexual orientation. Three percent of the citizens in the 15 'old' EU member states indicated that they, or family members, had been victim of a crime that seemed motivated by racial hatred or other prejudices. Percentages of such victims are highest in France, Denmark, the United Kingdom and the Benelux countries. Among those that could be considered immigrants, ten percent said they or family members had been victim of hate crimes in the course of the last year.

Contact with drug-related problems in the neighbourhood was only inquired after in the EU ICS and in the USA and Australia. On average about 10% of the population has been confronted with drug problems in the neighbourhood. Greece stands out with over 25%. Rates in Sweden, Hungary and Finland remain below 5%. There is an increase in perceived drug-related problems in several European countries.

Crime trends

The ICVS provides data that are fit for international comparison, although country specific circumstances do not always allow for fully standardised methodology. Among all countries participating in the ICVS since 1989, there are 15 developed countries about which information is available from at least four different sweeps, enabling an analysis of trends in crime over the last 10 or 15 years. The average for the 15 countries shows that the level of victimisation has peaked halfway the 1990s and has since shown a slow but steady decline. Victimisation rates of nearly all individual countries show the same curve-linear curve over the past 15 years. The drops are most pronounced in property crimes such as vehicle-related crimes (bicycle theft, thefts from cars and joyriding) and burglary. In most countries, crime levels in 2004 are back at the level of the late 1980's. The USA has acted as trend setter with levels of victimisation already declining in the second sweep of the ICVS in 1992.

The near universal drop in volume crime is arguably the most striking result of the fifth round of the ICVS and poses a clear theoretical challenge to criminologists. Criminal policies show great variation across countries. The ICVS data on precautionary measures against burglaries shows significant increases in the use of such measures in all participating countries. Improved security may well have been one of the main forces behind the universal drop in crimes such as joyriding and household burglary.

Victimisation and police recorded crime

A comparison was made between the level of victimisation by crime according to the ICVS and numbers of police-recorded crimes taken from the European Sourcebook on Crime Statistics (an effort to harmonise such statistics). Correlations between the two measures of the levels of different types of crime among industrialised nations were stronger when victimisation rates were adjusted for reporting to the police. In other words there is closer correspondence in relative risks of crime when account is taken of differences in reporting to the police. Correlations between unadjusted victimisation rates and police figures are mostly weak and rarely statistically significant. These results confirm that levels of recorded crimes cannot be reliably used for comparing levels of common crime across countries. Crime victim surveys seem a better source of information on levels of crime across countries. Secondly, trends in victimisation and in police recorded crime during the last four or five years were also analysed. The two measures were found not to be correlated or to be correlated negatively. Available evidence suggests that at least over a brief period of time, police recorded crime data cannot be reliably used to estimate changes in the level of crime either.

Reporting crimes to the police and victim's satisfaction
Unlike crime victimisation rates, reporting to the police and other victim responses differ little between victims living in main cities from those living elsewhere. Results from the 30 countries are therefore combined with those from main cities. Whether crimes are reported to the police depends mainly on the seriousness of the crime and whether such a report is necessary for claiming insurance. The reporting rates vary from almost 100% for car thefts and thefts of motorcycles to less than 10% for offensive sexual behaviour. The analysis was focussed on the reporting of five types of crime: theft from car, theft of bicycles, theft of personal property, completed and attempted burglary. On average one in four of these crimes are reported. The highest reporting rates (about 60% or more) can be found in Austria, Belgium, Sweden, Switzerland, Germany, England & Wales, Scotland and Denmark. In Istanbul, Bulgaria and Hong Kong reporting rates are less than 40%. The developing countries show the lowest reporting rates for these five crimes. In half of them less than 20% is reported.

Trends in reporting can be studied for 15 countries that participated at least three times. More than half of them show that reporting rates are going down for the combined five crimes. This is partly because the composition of crimes has changed; the share of crimes that have traditionally low reporting rates has increased. Reporting rates have significantly gone up in Poland and Estonia.

About half of the victims who reported a crime were satisfied with the way the police treated their case, varying from over 70% in Denmark, Switzerland, Finland, Australia, Scotland and New Zealand to less than thirty percent in Estonia, Lima, Maputo, Greece, and Mexico. In several countries where levels of satisfaction used to be comparatively high, the rates of satisfaction have decreased since 2000. This group of countries includes the USA, Canada, England & Wales, Sweden and the Netherlands, countries where better treatment of victims is actively promoted.

Victim support
Whether the victim received any victim support after reporting to the police was asked for four types of crime. Most likely to receive such support are the victims of sexual offences (30%). Slightly less than 10% of victims of robbery and assault & threat received support. On average, victims of burglary received the least support. The Anglophone countries (sharing a common law system) plus the Netherlands and Sweden most frequently provide support to victims. Victim support is also comparatively well developed in Johannesburg, the only city in a developing country where this is the case. There is a modest increase in victim support in most countries for which trend data are available.

Many more victims would have appreciated help than actually received it. Among the participating countries/cities, 8% of victims of serious crimes who have reported to the police had received specialised help, while 43% of those who didn't, express a need of it. The proportion of victims whose expressed needs are met can be approached by dividing the number of victims who received support by the numbers of those who received it and of those who would have wanted it (times 100). Such calculation shows that agencies of victim support provided services to roughly 21% of victims with expressed needs. Using the same formula, victim support organisations reach 38% of the victims of sexual offences demanding specialised help, 20% of victims of robberies with such needs, 19% of victims of threat & assaults and 10% of victims of burglaries. For all four groups the supply of specialised agencies falls short of the demand. The gap between supply and demand of victim support is by far the largest for the group of burglary victims.

Percentages of victims whose expressed needs are actually met by the agencies vary across countries. The proportions of victims of serious crimes with manifest support needs who were actually contacted by victim support are the highest in New Zealand (47%) and the UK, with percentages as high as 40 in Scotland, 37 in Northern Ireland and 31 in England & Wales. Other countries where victim support offers help to reasonably high proportions of victims in need of help are Austria, the Netherlands, USA, Canada and Japan.

Fear of crime

Respondents were asked how likely they think it is that a burglary will take place in their house in the coming year. Levels of concern are correlated to actual burglary rates. Concern is most common among the public in Japan, Greece and Italy, and least common in Finland, Denmark, USA, Sweden and the Netherlands. The top ranking main cities are Istanbul, Athens, Sao Paulo and Lima. There is a downward trend in concern about burglary, in tandem with the declining burglary rates.

Feelings of unsafety in the streets are most widespread among inhabitants of Bulgaria, Poland and Greece. Such feelings are least common among the public in the Nordic countries, Canada and the Netherlands. The main cities in developing countries are the least safe in the opinion of their inhabitants. Responses to the question 'How safe do you feel when walking alone on the street after dark' do not show a relation with actual levels of street crime. Perceived safety is fairly strongly related to perceived drugs problem in the neighbourhood though.

Security precautions
More and more households install an electronic burglar alarm and/or special door locks to protect their houses against burglary. The highest rates are found in more affluent countries. In many Nordic countries and in the Netherlands burglar alarms are less popular than in most Anglophone countries but an increasing number of houses are protected with special door locks. The use of both burglar alarms and security locks shows a distinct upward trend since 1988 in nearly all countries, probably reflecting improved security against crime across the board.

Attitudes to law enforcement
All respondents were asked how well they think the police do their job in controlling crime in the local area. In most countries the opinion of the public was stable or has improved. Most prominent improvements since 1989 and 1992 have been observed in the Netherlands, Switzerland, Portugal and Austria. Police forces seem to get credit from citizens for dropping crime rates.

Public satisfaction with the police, reporting rates of crime victims and satisfaction of victims with how the police deal with reported crimes can be combined into a composite police performance measure. The police in Hong Kong, Finland, USA, Canada and New Zealand score highest on this combined score. The three large cities in the southern part of Latin America (Sao Paulo, Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires) score the least favourably.

Public attitudes to sentencing
Respondents were asked what type of punishment would be appropriate for a recidivist burglar who had been arrested for stealing a colour TV. Those favouring imprisonment were asked what length of prison sentence seemed desirable. The Mexican respondents proved to be most in favour of imprisonment, followed by those in the USA and other Anglophone countries. Most of the people in the large cities in developing countries believe a long prison sentence would be appropriate, even more than in the Anglophone countries.

The public in the Nordic countries, France and Switzerland are most in favour of a community service. Less than half the people in the former socialist countries Poland, Estonia, Bulgaria and Hungary believe a prison sentence is appropriate, but those who do, prefer above average lengths of prison detention. The attitude of the population towards sentencing does not correspond very well with the actual incarceration rates in countries.

The future of the ICVS
Repeats of the ICVS in 2007 and 2008 are under preparation in several countries. It is hoped that plans made in the framework of the European

Union for a standardised EU crime survey will allow for a continuation of the ICVS-based series by using elements of the ICVS methodology including its core set of questions.

1 Introduction

1.1 Background to the International Crime Victims Survey

The International Crime Victims Survey (ICVS) was initiated in 1987 by a group of European criminologists with expertise in national crime surveys (Van Dijk, Mayhew, Killias, 1990). The survey was set up to produce estimates of victimisation that can be used for international comparison. The survey has evolved into the world's premier program of standardised surveys looking at householders' experience of common crime in different countries. There have so far been five main rounds of the ICVS. After the first round in 1989 the surveys were repeated in 1992, 1996, and 2000 and 2004/2005. By the end of 2005 over 140 surveys had been done in over 78 different countries (in 37 countries nationwide). Over 320,000 citizens have been interviewed in the course of the ICVS so far. The present database covers 325,454 individual respondents.

The core questionnaire of the ICVS has been drafted and pilot tested in several countries in 1987, building on the existing instruments of the national crime victim surveys of the Netherlands, England & Wales and Switzerland (Van Dijk, Mayhew, Killias, 1991). Great care has been given by the international working group to ensure a correct translation of the questionnaire in all main European languages. In later sweeps the translation of the questionnaire in other languages has been the responsibility of the national experts supervising the surveys in their home countries. Over the years minor adjustments and amendments have been introduced in the questionnaire. Because of the longitudinal aspect of the ICVS, changes to the questionnaire have always been kept to a minimum. Since the surveys have now been repeated several times in many countries, results can be used to compare trends in crime over a period of twenty years.

Readers should be aware that the ICVS provides a measure of common crimes to which the general public is exposed, including relatively minor offences such as petty theft as well as more serious crimes such as car thefts, sexual assaults or threats/assaults. The comparatively small samples sizes preclude estimation of less prevalent crimes such as rapes or aggravated assaults. As other crime surveys, the ICVS largely ignores victimisation by complex crimes such as grand corruption or organised crime victimising collective populations rather than individuals. ICVS-based prevalence rates cannot be reliably used as indicator of these other types of crime (Van Dijk, 2007). Some indication of the extent of complex crimes can be found in the ICVS rates of victimisation by bribery. Victimisation by bribe-seeking is much more common among the public in developing countries. The restriction of the ICVS to the most prevalent, common crimes must be borne in mind when comparing ICVS-based rates of developed and developing countries.

For the crime types it covers, the ICVS asks about incidents that by and large accord with legal definitions of common offences, using colloquial language. Household burglary, for example, is captured by the question '*Did anyone get into your house or flat without permission, and steal or try to steal something?*' Respondents are asked about victimisation by ten types of common crime that they themselves or their household may have experienced. Household crimes are those which can be seen as affecting the household at large, and respondents report on all incidents known to them. The questionnaire covered as separate household crimes: car theft (including joyriding), theft from or out a car, motorcycle theft, bicycle theft, burglary and attempted burglary.

For personal crimes, respondents report on what happened to them personally. Types of personal crimes included are sexual incidents (including both less serious incidents like rapes and other sexual assaults), threats & assaults (including assaults with force), robbery and theft of personal property (including pickpocketing).

The ICVS questionnaire uses a list of screen questions about ten specifically defined types of crime. After the respondent has been taken through the full list, modules with followed up questions are used to interview those identified as victims about details. The use of a screener prevents respondents with many victimisations from avoiding positive responses to the question about possible victimisation in order to prevent further questioning about details.

An important known distortion factor in crime surveying is the tendency of respondents to telescope victimisation experience forward in time in their memories. This tendency is exacerbated if respondents are asked exclusively about incidents that took place in the course of the past 12 months or calendar year. Research using ICVS questions has confirmed that in such circumstances reported victimisation rates are significantly inflated (Saris & Scherpenzeel, 1992). In the screening questions of the ICVS questionnaire, respondents are asked first about their experience of crime over the last five years. Those who mention an incident of any particular type are asked when it occurred: in the first months of the current year (2004 or 2005), in the last year (in this case 2003 or 2004), or before that. Information presented in this report is mainly on percentages of respondents victimised in the course of 2003 or 2004 depending on the date of the interview.

All those who say they have been victimised over the five-year period are asked a number of follow-up questions about what happened – whether the police were notified, for instance, and whether they were satisfied with their treatment by the police or received specialised support. A few

other crime-related questions are asked of all respondents. They include opinions on general police performance, what respondents would recommend as a sentence for a recidivist burglar and the use of precautionary measures against crime.

Mainly for cost-saving reasons, CATI has, from the outset, been implemented in all ICVS rounds in industrialised countries with sufficiently high telephone penetration rates (above 70%).

1.2 Methodology of the ICVS 2005[1]

The ICVS 2004/2005 was mainly coordinated by the United Nations Interregional Criminal Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) in Turin, Italy together with the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) in Vienna. The fifth round of the project broke down in two parts: surveys conducted in member states of the European Union and the surveys done outside the EU. For the execution of the project in the member countries of the European Union (the EU ICS) a consortium was set up, lead by Gallup Europe, comprising UNICRI, Max Planck Institute for Foreign and International Criminal Law in Freiburg (Germany), CEPS/INSTEAD in Luxembourg and GeoX in Hungary. The consortium received a grant from the European Commission, DG Research, which carried part of the costs of the field work among the 15 old Member States of the EU. As part of the agreement with the EC data were also collected in three newly acceded members (Poland, Estonia and Hungary). The Estonian and Polish surveys were funded by their respective governments and executed in line with the ICVS methodology independently from the consortium.

Fieldwork in Hungary and the 15 old member states of the European Union as well as in the USA was conducted by Gallup Europe. Data collection in other countries was organised independently. In both cases the fieldwork used elements of the same standardised methodology, including the adjusted ICVS questionnaire. Results on eighteen European countries have been reported on in Van Dijk, Manchin, Van Kesteren and Hideg (2007). Separate surveys were done in Northern Ireland and Scotland, also by Gallup Europe. In the present report, the UK will be broken down into England & Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The data for England & Wales were extracted from the UK sample. Data from the UK as a whole are presented in the appendices.

1 More information on the methodology of the EU ICS can be found on the Consortium's website: www.europeansafetyobservatory.eu.

The surveys outside the EU were done by a variety of independent agencies, using the same instruments. Apart from the EU ICS consortium that contributed the data for the 15 old member states and Hungary, the following researchers and institutes contributed data from their surveys to the ICVS main database:

Argentina	Mariano Ciafardini & Daniel R. Fernández – Departamento de Investigaciones. Dirección Nacional de Política Criminal. Ministerio de Justicia y Derechos Humanos de la Nación.
Australia	Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra
Brazil	Ilanud, Sao Paolo
Bulgaria	Center for the Study of Democracy, Sofia
Cambodia	Roderic Broadhurst – School of Justice Studies – Queensland University of Technology / Hong Centre for Criminology, Centre for Social Sciences, Hong Kong
Canada	Department of Justice Canada, Ottawa
Estonia	Andri Ahven – Ministry of Justice, Tallinn
Hong Kong	Roderic Broadhurst – Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane and John Bacon-Shone, Lena Yue Ying Zhong, King-Wa Lee – Hong Kong University, Social Science Research Centre
Iceland	Helgi Gunnlaugson, University of Iceland, Reykjavik and Rannveig Thorisdottir, National Commissioner of the Icelandic Police, Reykjavik
Japan	Research and Training Institute, Ministry of Justice – Chiba
Mexico	Luis de la Barreda –The Citizens Institute for the Study of Insecurity, Mexico City
Mozambique	Anna Alvazzi del Frate and John van Kesteren – UNICRI
New Zealand	Department of Research, Evaluation & Modelling – Ministry of Justice – Wellington
Northern Ireland	Northern Ireland Office, Belfast
Norway	Leif Petter Olausen – Institute of Criminology and Sociology of Law, University of Oslo
Peru	Hugo Morales – Faculty of Psychology, San Marcos University, Lima
Poland	Beata Gruszczynska, M. Marczewski & Andrzej Siemaszko – Institute of Justice, Warsaw
Republic of South Africa	Beaty Naudé & Johan Prinsloo – Institute for Criminological Sciences, University of South Africa, Pretoria

Scotland	Scotland Executive Office, Edinburgh
Switzerland	Martin Killias, Sandrine Haymoz, Philippe Lamon – Universities of Zurich and Lausanne
Turkey	Galma Jahic -Istanbul Bilgi University and Dr. Aslı Akdas – Dogus University
USA	United States Department of Justice, Washington

Appendix 5 shows details on the organisation of the fieldwork. The fieldwork in EU countries was done in 2005 and victimisation rates refer to calendar year 2004. Most of the non-European surveys were done in 2004 as scheduled and the victimisation figures thus refer to the year 2003. The city surveys in Maputo, Rio and Sao Paulo were done in 2002 and the one in Phnom Penh in 2001. Because their results have never been published in a comparative ICVS context, they are included in the present report. Although we will refer to victimisation rates of 2003 or 2004, the reader must bear in mind that this could mean 2001 or 2000 for these cities. See table 1 for details.

In the present report key findings are presented on the level of victimisation by common crime in 2003 or 2004 concerning 38 countries, including eight countries where the survey was conducted in one or two main cities only. In most of the 30 countries where surveys were carried out among samples of the national population, booster samples were drawn from the population of the capital (or another main city) or the data from a main city was extracted from the regular national sample. This sampling design was chosen in order to generate added value by producing rates for both national populations and populations of main cities. From a policy perspective city rates are important since in many countries crime policies are largely set and implemented at local level, e.g. in the USA and Germany. The availability of city-based data allows an analysis of the impact on victimisation experiences of a city context besides the context of a nation.

Besides national results on 30 countries, results will be presented on 33 main cities. The city results are of additional interest since they include results about seven cities in developing countries (Buenos Aires –Argentina, Rio de Janeiro and Sao Paulo –Brazil, Phnom Penh- Cambodia, Lima –Peru, Maputo –Mozambique, Johannesburg –Republic of South Africa) as well as of Istanbul –Turkey and Hong Kong –Special Administrative Region of China. The new sampling design allows a comparison between results from a wide range of main cities from both developed and developing countries. In previous publications on global crime, city rates from developing countries have been compared with rates of urban areas in developed countries extracted from the national samples (rates among inhabitants of cities with more than 100,000). The fifth sweep of the ICVS

allows a more straightforward and 'purer' comparison between levels of crime across world regions by looking at rates of main cities only. A major constraint on comparisons at the global level remains the strong over-representation of cities in developed countries.

Five countries have participated in all five rounds of the ICVS (Canada, England & Wales, Finland, the Netherlands and USA). For Australia, Belgium, France, Northern Ireland, Poland, Scotland, Sweden and Switzerland there is data available from two or three previous rounds. For many of the other countries comparisons can be made with results from at least one previous round of the ICVS. As much as possible data on 2003/04 will be presented jointly with historical data on all these countries. Such presentation not only points to changes over time but also allows a check on the stability of findings from studies conducted in different years. As will be demonstrated, levels of crime have gone down almost everywhere over the past years. However, relative positions of countries in terms of crime and other issues are remarkably stable across the rounds of the ICVS. This finding by itself enhances the overall credibility of the estimated rates.

In the following sections the main design features of the ICVS will be discussed. Additional information on the methodology of the ICVS can be found on the websites of INTERVICT[2] and Gallup-Europe[3] and in the documentation contained in reports on individual ICVS-based surveys listed in appendix 5.

Instrument and content
The most important changes to the questionnaire for the 2005 ICVS were deletion of the questions on car vandalism and of some follow-up questions to reduce the length of the interview. In many countries, new questions were added on experiences with drugs-problems, taken from the Eurobarometer, and questions on perceptions of hate crime. The item on consumer fraud was followed up with questions on internet-based fraud and credit card fraud. In the EU-ICS, translations of the new questions in their relevant languages were made by Gallup Europe[4].

Appendix 8 gives a schematic overview as well as the full ICVS questionnaire. A number of EU ICS specific items that are used in this report are added to the ICVS core questionnaire. The full versions in every Euro-

2 www.intervict.nl.
3 www.europeansafetyobservatory.eu.
4 In the surveys conducted by Gallup Europe the interview is preceded by some attitudinal questions that provide an introduction to the items on crime victimisation. In capital cities in Europe, modules have been added on feelings of insecurity. In this report, data on these new items are not discussed (for preliminary findings see www europeansafetyobservatory.eu).

pean language used in the 2005 EU ICS are available on the consortium's website.

The ICVS is similar to most crime surveys of households with respect to the types of crime it covers. It is largely confined to counting crimes against clearly identifiable individuals, excluding children below 16 years of age. The types of crime included the bulk of 'common crimes' such as theft, burglary, robbery and assault. Through a set of special questions the survey also collects information on non-conventional crimes such as street level corruption (bribe-seeking by public officials), consumer fraud and 'hate crimes'.

Mode of the survey
Most country surveys interviews have been carried out with computer-assisted telephone interviewing (CATI was used in 24 of the 30 country surveys)[5]. Interviews were carried out via fixed (landline) telephones, with the exception of Finland, where an additional sub-sample was interviewed via mobile phones (see below). In Poland, Estonia, Bulgaria, Turkey (Istanbul), Japan and in all developing countries, surveys were conducted with in-person interviewing.

The average duration of the interview in the EU ICS was 23.2 minutes. The CATI surveys outside the EU took less time, because some EU ICS specific items were not included in these questionnaires. The surveys that were done face to face took more time; this interview technique generally takes 30% to 50% longer. In Japan the interviews lasted on average 50 minutes, due mainly to the elaborate formulations needed in the Japanese language. In the Japanese survey responses to the follow up questions on sexual incidents were collected through a self-administered paper and pencil questionnaires filled out during the interview and submitted in a sealed envelope.

The use of different interviewing modes raises the issue whether this may have compromised the comparability of results. Methodological work has shown that, generally speaking, responses to questions on victimisation from telephone interviews are similar to those obtained face-to-face (Van Dijk, Mayhew, 1992; Lynch, 2005; Catalano, 2007). This conclusion is based, inter alia, on experimental work carried out in the Netherlands comparing CATI-based interviews on a core set of ICVS questions with face to face interviews (Saris, Scherpenzeel, 1992; Scherpenzeel, 2001). Both modes of interviewing produced the same prevalence rates. Pavlovic also found no significant differences in victimisation rates in a similar ICVS-based experiment in Slovenia (Pavlovic, 1994). Recent experiments

5 20 of the 30 country surveys were implemented by Gallup Europe (besides the old 15 EU members, Hungary, Northern Ireland, Scotland, USA and Iceland).

have confirmed that the interview mode has little impact on self-reported delinquency or victimisation (Lucia, Herrmann, Killias, 2007). Older split sample tests in the course of the NCVS in the USA, however, have demonstrated higher victimisation counts in CATI-based interviews than in either face to face or telephone interviews. This difference seems to have been caused primarily by better supervision of interviewers in centralized CATI facilities (Lynch, 2006). The available experimental evidence suggests that, *given the same standard of field work*, interview mode does not significantly affect victimisation counts. A feature of the fifth sweep of the ICVS is that in most participating countries data collection has been carried out through carefully prepared, dedicated surveys supervised by experts with extensive prior experiences with crime surveying. With one or two exceptions all national coordinators have been involved in previous ICVS-based studies. Although distortions in individual countries due to inadequate briefing or supervision of interviewers cannot be totally excluded, we see no reasons to assume that in countries where CATI was not used, victimisation rates have been systematically deflated.

In Spain and Northern Ireland a switch was made from face to face interviewing in previous sweeps to CATI in 2005. The results show a substantial decrease of victimisation rates in Spain and an equally substantial increase in Northern Ireland. There is little way of knowing whether and to what extent the new interview mode has affected these change estimates but they at any rate point into different directions. There is no relationship between the use of CATI and rates of victimisation from this cross-sectional perspective.

Sampling design and undercoverage

The samples used for the ICVS were designed to provide the most complete coverage with the least bias. Therefore Random Digit Dialling (RDD) samples of landline telephone numbers were used in most developed countries where telephone penetration is 70% or higher. This means that telephone numbers were not selected from a directory or list, but were generated randomly. The Random Digit Dialling of telephone numbers, stratified using 'NUTS 2' or similar regional strata, guarantees a solid and cost effective coverage of the population in a country. The national surveys done in Estonia and Poland used randomly selected persons drawn from official national registrations. These samples were also stratified by local area. In Japan, there was an initial sample of municipalities and then randomly selected persons drawn from official municipal registrations. The surveys in the main cities in developing countries were, as said, done face to face. The sample method was tailored to local circumstances but generally a multi stage stratified sample was used. For specific details on these surveys we refer to the reports that have been published on each study. References can be found in appendix 5.

In Finland, the emerging trend among specific population groups to exclusively use mobile phones – notably young people – is stronger than anywhere else in Europe (it had reached the level of 35% in 2005). In this setting the use of fixed telephone lines as sampling frame introduces a serious problem of undercoverage, comparable to that in countries were telephone penetration is below 70%. The finding that young people were indeed grossly underrepresented in the original, unweighted Finnish sample prompted the drawing of an additional sample of persons exclusively owning mobile phones. These owners were selected from an existing list of mobile owners with subscription numbers. A sample of 500 mobile only users were interviewed on the core ICVS questions in November 2005. The group of exclusive mobile users differed in many relevant respects from the general Finnish population such as on age and lifestyle. Reported rates of victimisation of the mobile sample were significantly higher than those of the unweighted fixed-line sample. The fixed-line and mobile only users samples were subsequently combined and data were re-weighted for age, gender, geographical area and mobile-only ratio according to the standard, iterative weighing procedure to be described below. Surprisingly, the inclusion of mobile only users in the re-weighed sample did not substantially alter either one year or five year victimisation rates. The overall one year prevalence rate changed from 11.2 to 12.6%. Of the crime-specific one year prevalence rates only theft from car showed a statistically significant change (of a one percent point). This result shows that post-stratification weighting, as routinely applied in the ICVS, was able to produce estimates from a seriously biased sample that were very close to those based on a full-coverage sample. A technical report on the outcomes of this special analysis is available on the Consortium website (Hideg, Manchin, 2007).

The Finnish retest also sheds some light on the concern that rates in Scandinavian countries might have been deflated due to the postponement of fieldwork to June 2005 when summer holidays have started and especially young people may already have left their homes. Since the interviewing of mobile-only users took place in November 2005, results of this additional study cannot have been deflated by a possible holiday effect. As noted, the inclusion of the November sample has not significantly changed prevalence rates in the reweighed sample. It seems likely that the standard re-weighing for age has compensated for a possible holiday effect, just as it apparently did for the absence of young people using mobiles only. In other words, the relatively few young people that were actually interviewed in June 2005 – and whose data have been weighted – seem to have been reasonably representative for their age group in terms of victimisation experiences.

Table 1 **Data presented in this report from national surveys and main cities. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*. The victimisation figures apply to the year preceding the survey, unless mentioned otherwise**

Countries	1989 surveys	1992 surveys	1996 surveys	2000 surveys	2004/05 surveys
Australia	•	•		•	2004
Austria			•		2005*
Belgium	•	•		•	2005*
Bulgaria					2004
Canada	•	•	•	•	2004
Denmark					2005*
England & Wales	•	•	•	•	2005*
Estonia		•	•	•	2004
Finland	•	•	•	•	2005*
France	•		•	•	2005*
Germany	•				2005*
Greece					2005*
Hungary					2005*
Iceland					2005
Ireland					2005*
Italy		•	.		2005*
Japan				•	2004
Luxembourg					2005*
Mexico					2004
Netherlands	•	•	•	•	2005*
New Zealand		•			2005*
Northern Ireland	•		•	•	2005
Norway	•				2004
Poland		•	•	•	2004
Portugal				•	2005*
Scotland	•		•	•	2005
Spain	•				2005*
Sweden		•	•	•	2005*
Switzerland	•		•	•	2005
USA	•	•	•	•	2004

Main cities	2001/05 surveys
Amsterdam (Netherlands)	2005*
Athens (Greece)	2005*
Belfast (Northern Ireland)	2005
Berlin (Germany)	2005*
Brussels (Belgium)	2005*
Budapest (Hungary)**	2005*
Buenos Aires (Argentina)	2004
Copenhagen (Denmark)	2005*
Dublin (Ireland)	2005*
Edinburgh (Scotland)	2005
Johannesburg (RSA)	2004
Helsinki (Finland)	2005*
Hong Kong (SAR China)	2005
Istanbul (Turkey)	2005
Lima (Peru)	2005
Lisbon (Portugal)	2005*
London (England)	2005*
Madrid (Spain)	2005*
Maputo (Mozambique)	2002
New York (USA)	2004
Oslo (Norway)**	2004
Paris (France)	2005*
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	2001
Reykjavik (Iceland)**	2005
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	2002
Rome (Italy)	2005*
Sao Paulo (Brazil)	2002
Stockholm (Sweden)	2005*
Sydney (Australia)**	2004
Tallinn (Estonia)**	2004
Vienna (Austria)	2005*
Warsaw (Poland)	2005
Zurich (Switzerland)	2005

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** There was no booster sample in the capital (or in a main) city, the data for cities have been extracted from the regular sample.

Sample sizes

The targeted number of actual interviews in most countries where national samples were drawn was 2000. As said, in most EU countries samples were divided into a larger national part (with a targeted size of 1200) and

Table 2 **Coverage of the ICVS; Countries that have participated in the ICVS at least once. Participants in the 2005 surveys in italics. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

Country (city)	National	City
Africa		
Botswana (Gaborone)		•
Egypt (Cairo)		•
Lesotho (Maseru)		•
Mozambique (Maputo)		•
Namibia (Windhoek)		•
Nigeria (Lagos)		•
Republic of South Africa (Johannesburg)		•
Swaziland (Mbabane)		•
Tanzania (Dar es Salaam)		•
Tunisia (Tunis)		•
Latin America		
Argentina (Buenos aires)		•
Bolivia (La Paz)		•
Brazil (Rio de Janeiro + Sao Paulo)		•
Colombia (Bogota)		•
Costa Rica (San Jose)	•	•
Mexico	•	
Panama (Panama city)		•
Paraguay (Asuncion)		•
Peru (Lima)		•
Asia		
Azerbaijan (Baku)		•
China (Beijing)		•
Kyrgyzstan (Bishkek)		•
Hong Kong (SAR China)	•	•
India (Mumbai)		•
Indonesia (Jakarta)		•
Japan	•	
Cambodia (Phnom Penh)		•
Korea (Seoul)		•
Mongolia (Ulaanbaatar)		•
The Philippines (Manila)		•
Papua New Guinea		
North America		
Canada	•	•
United States (New York)	•	•
Oceania		
Australia (Sydney) **	•	•
New Zealand	•	

Country (city)	National	City
West-Central Europe		
Austria (Vienna) *	•	•
Belgium (Brussels) *	•	•
Czech Republic (Prague)		•
Denmark (Copenhagen) *	•	•
England & Wales (London) *	•	•
*Estonia (Tallinn)***	•	•
Finland (Helsinki) *	•	•
France (Paris) *	•	•
Germany (Berlin) *	•	•
Hungary (Budapest) * **	•	•
Iceland (Reykjavik) **	•	•
Ireland (Dublin) *	•	•
Italy (Rome) *	•	•
Latvia (Riga)		•
Lithuania (Vilnius)		•
Luxembourg *	•	
Malta	•	
Netherlands (Amsterdam) *	•	•
Northern Ireland (Belfast)	•	•
Norway **	•	•
Poland (Warsaw) ***	•	
Portugal (Lisbon) *	•	•
Scotland (Edinburgh)	•	•
Slovak Republic (Bratislava)		•
Slovenia (Ljubljana)		•
Spain (Madrid) *	•	•
Sweden (Stockholm) *	•	•
Switzerland (Zurich)	•	•
Turkey (Istanbul)		•
South East Europe		
Albania (Tirana)		•
Bulgaria (Sofia) **	•	
Croatia (Zagreb)		•
Georgia (Tbilisi)	•	
Macedonia (Skopje)		•
Romania (Bucharest)		•
Yugoslavia (Belgrade)		•
East Europe		
Belarus (Minsk)		•
Russian Federation (Moscow)		•
Ukraine (Kiev)		•

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** There was no booster sample in the capital (or in a main) city, the data for cities have been extracted from the regular (national) sample.

*** A separate survey was done in Warsaw, not part of the national study in 2004.

a relatively smaller main city part (targeted n=800). Through the weighting procedure main city sub-samples were included in national samples in the right proportion, in order to calculate national rates. With the exception of Luxembourg and Estonia, sample sizes are 2000 or more. There were no additional interviews done in the main cities of Luxembourg, Estonia, Bulgaria, Canada, Japan, Mexico, New Zealand and Norway.

The main city samples of Bulgaria, Norway and Estonia have been extracted from the regular national sample; between 400 and 500 interviews have been conducted there. The city of Sydney has been extracted from the large national sample of Australia which resulted in 1491 cases. A separate survey was done in Warsaw in 2005, a year after the national survey. The Finnish survey includes as said, 500 additional interviews with owners of mobile phones who could not be reached by fixed telephones. Sample sizes in other countries/cities were mainly 2000. Other sample sizes varied from 993 in Maputo (Mozambique), 1241 in Istanbul (Turkey), 5000 in Poland, 7000 in Australia to 7011 in Lima (Peru). Appendix 3 shows the sample sizes for each survey and sub-sample sizes in main cities (if applicable). Results of sample research are of course subject to sampling errors. The issue of confidence intervals is taken up in the next chapter.

Response rates

Response rates are an ungoing concern in survey research generally. Unfortunately, reduced response rates are a common trend in CATI-based survey research in Europe and the USA (Catalano, 2007). Main reasons seem to be increased refusals due to interview fatigue and the use of answering machines filtering out unwanted calls. Several actions were taken to increase cooperation throughout the CATI – surveys carried out by Gallup Europe. In the case of the surveys carried out by Gallup Europe in the European Union a so-called 7+7 call design was applied over an extended period of time. Each telephone number was dialled at least seven times to establish initial contact (i.e. if the line was busy, or was not answered) and there was a maximum of seven repeated calls to establish contact with the eligible respondent within the household, including with those giving soft refusals the first time. The field period has been extended to allow more flexible scheduling to reach people who are only rarely at home.

Achieved response rates in the European Union ranged from 36.9% in Luxembourg to 56.9% in Finland (landlines only), averaging 46.3% overall in the 15 countries where RDD was used. The overall response rates are slightly better than the one of the first sweep in 1989 when no recalls were made but remains below the levels obtained in the three subsequent

sweeps (see Van Kesteren, Mayhew, Nieuwbeerta, 2000). The average response rate for all the national surveys is 51%. The lowest response rates were in Norway (33%) and the USA (27%). Details on response rates for each survey are in appendices 3 and 4.

Low response rates raise the issue how far respondents who are successfully interviewed differ from those who refuse to co-operate, or who cannot be reached. A related issue is to what extent variability in response levels upsets comparability. The issue is not straightforward. Although the possibility that low response rates introduce bias in victimisation counts is real, the effect could be in two opposing ways. Where low response is due to high rates of non-contact, people are omitted who may be more liable to victimisation because they are residentially more unstable, or simply away from home more. Victims therefore could be under-represented in the sample, with the effect that victimisation risks in countries where non-contact is high are understated. Under coverage of those with outgoing lifestyles is a problem for all survey research using sampling designs that are dependent on the availability of people at their addresses for interviewing either by phone or in person. On this ground it seems reasonable to assume that almost all surveys are affected by this factor to some extent and therefore are likely to produce somewhat deflated victimisation rates. Undercoverage may be a larger problem in developing countries where socially marginalised groups, especially those residing in informal housing may be difficult to contact for face to face interviewing. This factor may have deflated victimisation rates in developing countries (Kury, Obergfell-Fuchs, Wurger, 2001)[6]. There is no way of determining whether or to what extent this is actually the case. Although this may have compromised comparability of victimisation levels of some developing countries, it seems unlikely that change estimates have been affected. Within the context of the repeated ICVS surveys in developed countries, the proportion of 'unreachables' will probably have remained more or less constant over the years.

In current survey research, non response is largely caused by soft refusals. Declining response rates in CATI-based survey research in recent years are mainly caused by 'interview fatigue' with more and more respondents resisting answering calls or refusing to be interviewed regardless of the topic. It seems unlikely that declining response rates are caused by larger proportions of respondents who cannot be contacted at home. The current trend of more and more soft refusers raises the concern that

6 Low response rates in surveys carried out in developing countries can also be caused by reduced accessibility of respondents in gated communities. The protected way of life of this subgroup may lead to below average rates of victimization. It is possible that the effects on victimisation estimates of the two forms of non-contact (unreachable due to an outgoing lifestyle and unreachable due to inaccessibility of their protected residence) offset each other.

surveys with low response rates may pick up people 'with more to say' (refusers having 'less to say'). On this view, victims would be overrepresented, with the effect that victimisation risks in countries where refusal rates are higher are overestimated relative to those where response is better. Within the early ICVS experience there are some indications that those interviewed who had initially declined show slightly, but not significantly, lower victimisation rates because they have 'less to tell' (Mayhew, Van Dijk, 1997)[7].

With the framework of the EU ICS surveys, Gallup Europe has, as mentioned, recalled respondents up to seven times after the initial contact with the household in the 2005 EU ICS. In case of a soft refusal, further attempts were made. The dataset contains information on the number of attempts made to contact respondents. This allows an analysis of interview response patterns, including victimisation rates, of categories of respondents differing in the number of attempts made to reach them.

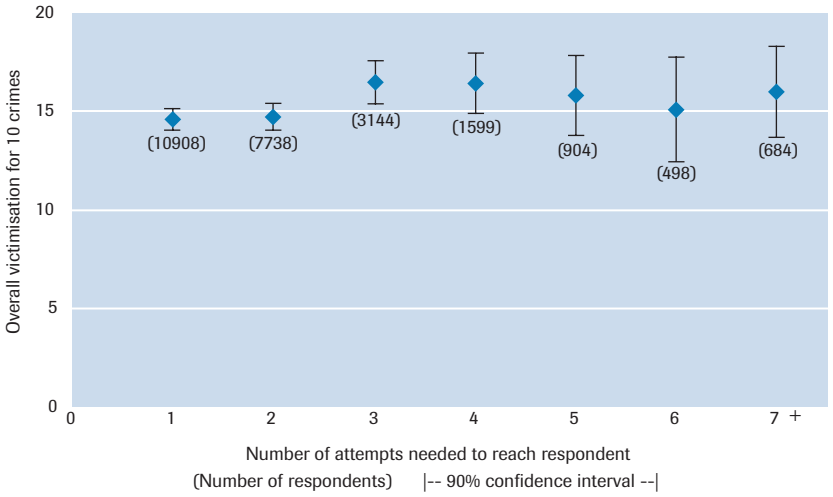
Figure 1 shows that there is no statistically significant relation between the number of attempts needed to reach a respondent and the victimisations reported. Of those who were contacted at the first attempt, 15% reported one or more victimisations. Of those contacted after the seventh attempt or more 16% reported a victimisation. The results also hold for victimisation by different types of crime. If only respondents had been interviewed that were reached at the very first attempt, the overall and crime-specific victimisation rates would have been the same. The lack of a relationship between number of attempts and victimisations reported, makes it implausible that the drops in response rates in the latest sweep have inflated crime victimisation rates by including a larger proportion of those 'eager to tell' about their victimisation. Again, the increased non-response is likely to be determined first and foremost by the randomly distributed factor of interview fatigue[8].

As an additional global test of a possible systemic relationship between response and prevalence, leaving aside the distinction between refusals and non-contact, overall response rates in 28 national surveys available after the third sweep of the ICVS, were correlated with overall victimisation rates. There was no relation between the response rates and the overall victimisation rates (r=0.04; n=28) (Mayhew, Van Dijk, 1997).

7 In a test made in the context of the 1996 British Crime Survey, people who said they did not want to be interviewed were pressed by interviewers to give some very short answers about the extent of their victimisation over the last year. Comparisons between these 'crude' victimisation rates and those of respondents who agreed to be interviewed showed no consistent difference (Lynn, 1997).

8 A recent examination of the non response in the major bi-annual survey on social attitudes of the Dutch Planning Agency for Social and Cultural Affairs showed that those initially refusing to be interviewed did not differ from other respondents and that their inclusion in the sample did not alter results (Verhagen, 2007). The much smaller group of those that could not be reached for an interview proved to be younger and better educated than the others but their inclusion did not alter reweighted results either.

Figure 1 **Number of attempts needed to reach a respondent and overall victimisation for 10 crimes. Based on 14 surveys from the 2005 EU ICS**

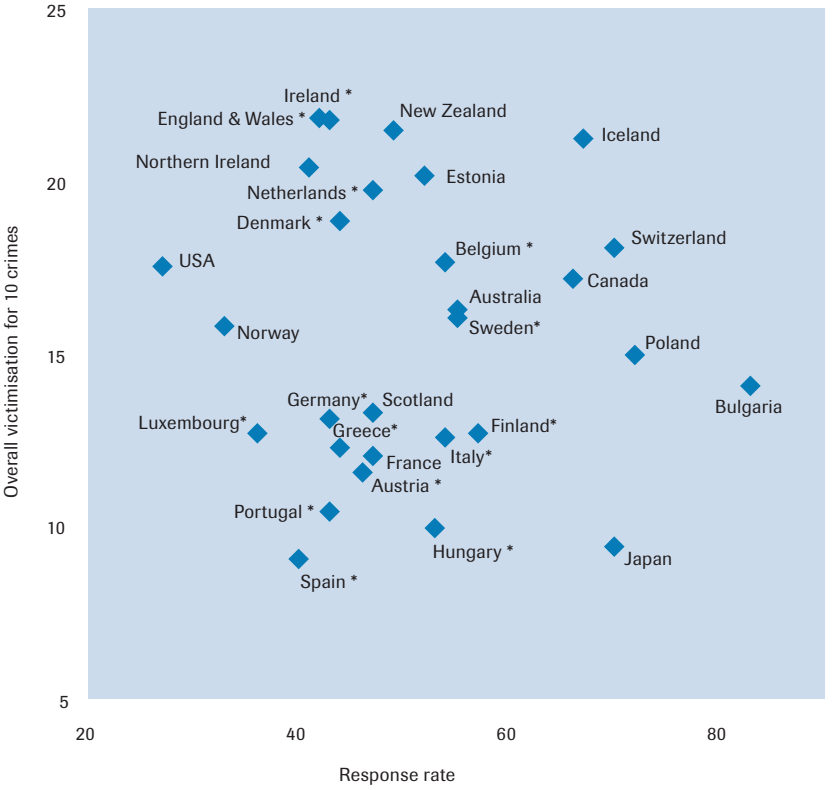


Source: Gallup Europe, 2005

We have repeated this test using the data of the fifth sweep of ICVS in which response rates showed greater variation than before. Figure 2 shows at a glance that there is no relationship between response rate and overall level of victimisation (r =0.04; n = 30). The earlier negative findings were fully confirmed. In the ICVS datasets there is no two-dimensional relationship between response rates per country and reported rates of victimisation. Theoretically, a link between response rate and victimisation may be repressed by external factors related to both response and victimisation. Previous analyses of ICVS data have shown that degree of urbanisation, age composition (proportion young people) and, less unambiguously, GDPPC are powerful predictors of overall levels of victimisation (Van Dijk, 1999). In order to examine a possible hidden link between response rates and victimisation, a multiple regression analysis was conducted with urbanisation, age composition, GDPPC and response rates as independents and overall victimisation as dependent. Table 3 shows the results.

The results of the regression analysis show that the strongest predictor of overall victimisation is degree of urbanisation. Less powerful predictors are age composition and GDPPC. The three predictors together explain roughly a third of the variance in victimisation rates (multiple regression coefficient is 0.50). Also after controlling for these three independents, response rates remain unrelated to victimisation rates (Beta=0.14).

Figure 2 **Plot of response rate (percentages) and overall victimisation (percentage one year prevalence rate) in countries. 2004–2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

Table 3 **Results of a regression analysis on overall victimisation with response rate and three crime related predictors as independents (age composition, percentage urban population, Gross National Product per Capita)***

	Unstandardised Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardised Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	-12.66	11.48		-1.10	0.28
Age composition	0.60	0.35	0.40	1.71	0.10
Urban population	0.16	0.08	0.43	2.05	0.05
GDP per Capita	0.09	0.10	0.21	0.87	0.39
Response	0.04	0.06	0.14	0.68	0.50

* The data matrix used for this regression analysis is in appendix 9.4, table 20.

The results of this cross-sectional analysis lend no support to the 'eager to tell' hypothesis. Trend data do not point at higher rates caused by more refusals either. If the 'eager to tell' hypothesis were correct, the significantly decreased response rates in the fifth sweep would have resulted in higher prevalence rates across the board. As will be seen, the results indicate significant decreases of crime almost in all countries. This result is also clearly at odds with the 'eager to tell' hypothesis.

It cannot be ruled out, though that response effects have different implication in different countries (such that low response rates in one country influences the victimisation count in a different way than in another). Nevertheless, current evidence suggests that countries with comparatively low response levels have neither inflated nor deflated counts of victimisation relative to other countries or previous sweeps.

Response error

Crime surveys are prone to various response errors. For one, certain groups (e.g. the better educated) seem more inclined to remember and report incidents of minor violence (Lynch, 2006). Secondly, some people may fail to realise an incident is relevant, or may be reticent to talk about some incidents or those involving people they know to strangers. The ICVS will at any rate only measure crimes that respondents are prepared to reveal to interviewers. In most countries, an information telephone number was available where the respondent could get additional information about the project. Based on the calls to those information numbers in a few countries from the 2000 surveys, we can conclude that the items on home security are the most sensitive issues in the questionnaire. Contrary to popular belief, the questions on sexual offences did not pose many difficulties.

Thirdly, respondents may simply forget to report less serious incidents, or they may 'telescope in' the more serious incidents which happened before the period they are asked about. In the ICVS this telescoping effect should, as explained, be reduced by initially asking about experience in the past five years. There is no way of knowing whether response errors are constant across countries. The tendency to forget more trivial incidents of crime may be relatively universal, as may be 'forward telescoping' of more salient incidents. Some types of differential 'response productivity' may also be constant, at least within the Western developed nations. However, whether respondents differ across countries in willingness to talk to interviewers about victimisation is possibly more questionable. Cultural sensitivity may apply most to some forms of violence, especially sexual incidents. It may also be that respondents in different countries have different cultural thresholds for defining certain behaviours as crime. Among populations of main cities, one might optimistically conclude that

common cultural and legal backgrounds, and the globalization of markets and mass media information result in fairly universal definitions about most conventional crimes in an urban environment. Certainly, the ICVS shows that victims in urban areas hold strikingly similar views about the relative seriousness of different offence types about which they are asked (see Van Dijk, 1999; Van Kesteren, Mayhew, Nieuwbeerta, 2000).

In previous sweeps of the ICVS fieldwork was largely executed within the first three months of the year, although there have been exceptions. In the current study fieldwork in Europe was planned for January-February 2005. Due to external factors, fieldwork in most EU countries did not commence before May/June 2005. Interviewing later in the year may have posed special problems other than the under coverage of young people, discussed above. The delayed fieldwork may have resulted into more memory decay and more forward time-telescoping in countries where the interviews were executed latest. This factor may then have compromised comparability of one-year victimisation rates by deflating the 2004 victimisation rates of these countries. Focused analyses of response patterns were conducted to assess the possible magnitude of such effects. The results did not reveal evidence of major distortions due to memory decay and/or forward time-telescoping[9]. For an extensive analysis on the telescoping effects see the Gallup Europe report on the EU results (Hideg & Manchin, 2007).

Weighting

Results in this report are based on data which have been weighted to make the samples as representative as possible of national populations aged 16 or more in terms of gender, regional population distribution, age, and household composition. The following weighting operations were carried out to compensate for over- and undersampling of particular groups within the population in the primary samples:

- The 2-stage sampling (random selection of a household and a random selection of a person within that household) means that people from small (single-person) households are by definition over-represented and people from large household are underrepresented. Weight variables are used to compensate for this.
- Weighting was done to compensate for the oversampling of inhabitants of the main cities in the primary, total samples.

9 In a situation of stable (or decreasing) crime rates, victimisation rates for the first six months of 2005 should not be higher than half the rates for 2004. Comparatively high 2005 rates could indicate that older incidents may have been telescoped into 2005 and/or that minor incidents from 2004 have been altogether forgotten. To correct for possible distortions from forward time telescoping or memory decay, victimisations placed in the first months of the current year (2005) were added to victimisations placed in the reference year (2004) and divided by the total number of months in both years together (for example 18). Using this averaged monthly rate, corrected 2004 rates were calculated for all EU countries. Forward time telescoping/memory decay might have occurred in case corrected rates are significantly higher than the 2004 only rates. In only two countries, Greece and Spain, corrected rates for over all victimisation were more than two percent points higher than actual rates. This result suggests that possible telescoping / memory effects have had only limited influence.

– Weighting was done to bring the samples in line with the distribution on age, gender and region within the country according to census data. For example: since it is known that young men are more difficult to reach for interviews and are therefore generally under-represented, weight variables are introduced to compensate for this.

For this report, individual weights were used rather than household weights and each country carried equal weight in computing averages. The latter choice results in underweighting of the larger countries in the mean rates. These choices are made to maintain comparability with the published results of the 1989, 1992, 1996 and 2000 ICVS. More detail on the weighing procedure is given in appendix 6 and in the technical report on the Finnish retest with mobile-only users (Hideg, Manchin, 2007).

Sample size
The EU ICS[10] surveys consisted of a 1200 cases national random sample and an 800 cases booster sample in the capital cities. For the EU ICS report, the weighting variables were computed in such a way that the national samples were set at 2000 cases. For reasons of consistency this approach has been pursued for the EU ICS countries in the present report as well. An alternative approach is to down-weight the booster sample into the initial national sample, resulting in sample sizes for most of the EU ICS countries of 1200 cases. The method of weighting does not alter the national rates but increases the margins of error: the 90% reliability intervals are about 1.3 times larger. Appendix 7 shows the margins of error for EU ICS countries with sample sizes of 1200 compared to 2000. Differences in victimisation rates reported upon in the text of the report are significant according to both approaches.

Counting rules and missing values
Another type of variance is due to the choices that are made in analysing the data, in particular the choices that are made in the treatment of missing values. Every individual researcher has his or hers own preference and arguments for choosing to include missing values in the analysis or not. In the ICVS database, for the sake of comparability, the following strategies have been pursued over the years:
– Structural missings are the responses to questions that are logically irrelevant. E.g. respondents that have not been a victim of a particular crime cannot respond to a question about reporting to the police. Percentages mentioned in this report are all based on the questions that have actually been asked to a respondent, ignoring structural missings.
– In the case of vehicle crimes, percentages apply either to all respondent or to owners only. It is always indicated in the report whether the vic-

10 Excluding Luxembourg, Finland had an additional 500 cases 'mobile phones only' respondents.

timisation rates are population based, including non-owners or owner based.
- In the majority of surveys the question on sexual offences was only used in interviews with female respondents. In this report we ignore answers from male respondents but available results are mentioned in appendix 9.1. This appendix also indicates in which countries the sexual offences questions were asked from male respondents.
- 'Don't know' and 'refusals' are 'user defined missings'. Throughout the ICVS sweeps, the key findings have been based on percentages computed with percentage bases *including* the user defined missings.

2 Victimisation by any common crime

In chapters 2 up to 7 we will present the key findings of the ICVS 2004/05, including the 2005 EU ICS, concerning risks to be victimised by different types of common crime. Data will be presented separately from 30 countries and 28 main cities. Within the overviews of city data a further distinction is made between data from developed countries and from developing countries[1].

Throughout these chapters rates of victimisation are expressed in prevalence rates, the percentage of those aged 16 or over who experienced a specific crime once or more during a fixed period. Results presented refer to the percentage of the population victimised by crime in the course of 2004 or 2003 per country or city (one-year prevalence victimisation rates). Prevalence rates reflect which percentage of the public has been victimised at least once by one or more types of crime. They do not reflect the number of times people are victimised during a year and therefore provide no count of the total numbers of crimes committed per 100,000 population (incidence rates). Rankings of countries according to prevalence rates have been found to be similar to rankings according to total numbers of crime per 100,000 population (Van Kesteren, Mayhew, Nieuwbeerta, 2000). Prevalence rates are therefore a rough but valid, comparative measure of the level of crime experienced by the public across countries.

This chapter focuses on the presentation of the overall, one-year victimisation prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentage of population victimised by any of the ten common crimes included in the survey). Where available, prevalence victimisation rates of previous years have been added in order to determine trends over time. For most countries at least one prevalence rate from a previous year is available[2]. For fifteen countries results are available from at least three sweeps. Results on main city populations are, as explained, presented separately from the national results and sub-distinctions are made between rates from cities in developed and developing countries respectively.

Readers are reminded that survey results are estimates, the accuracy of which rests upon the sample size and the observed percentage. With sample sizes of 2000 per country actual percentages in the population vary within confidence limits of – approximately – 0.5% to 1.5%. In the case of a victimisation rate of 5%, for example, there is a 90% certainty that the true rate among the population lies in the range between 4.2% and 5.8%. When the observed percentage is higher, the error margins

1 Country data include results from a national survey done in Mexico. Since the GDPPC of Mexico is substantially higher than that of several new members of the European Union, Mexican data have not been placed in a special category.

2 The ICVS was done nationally for the first time in Bulgaria, Greece, Ireland, Hungary, Mexico and Luxemburg. City surveys were conducted for the first time in Maputo, Phnom Penh, Lima, Hong Kong and Istanbul. There were multiple cities surveyed in Mozambique and Peru but only the results for the capital cities are presented in this report.

become larger as well, but are *relatively* smaller. For an overall victimisation rate of 20% and a sample size of 2000, the 90% reliability interval is +/- 1.5%. With a sample size of 800, as was used in most city surveys, a victimisation rate of 20% has a reliability interval of +/- 2% (3.3% in case of a sample size of 450 as in Zurich and Tallinn). Throughout the report, margins of error at the 90% confidence level have been indicated in the graphs presenting key results. Error margins of rates given in the tables can be determined with the help of table 1 in appendix 6.

Since victimisation rates often show variations across countries of several percentage points, it is always the case that countries at the top – or at the bottom – of the rankings have population rates that are statistically significantly different from the global mean. In many cases, differences between countries can be checked against results of previous sweeps of the survey. In most cases, the ranking of countries is confirmed by results of ICVS surveys in previous years.

2.1 Overall victimisation levels in 2003/04

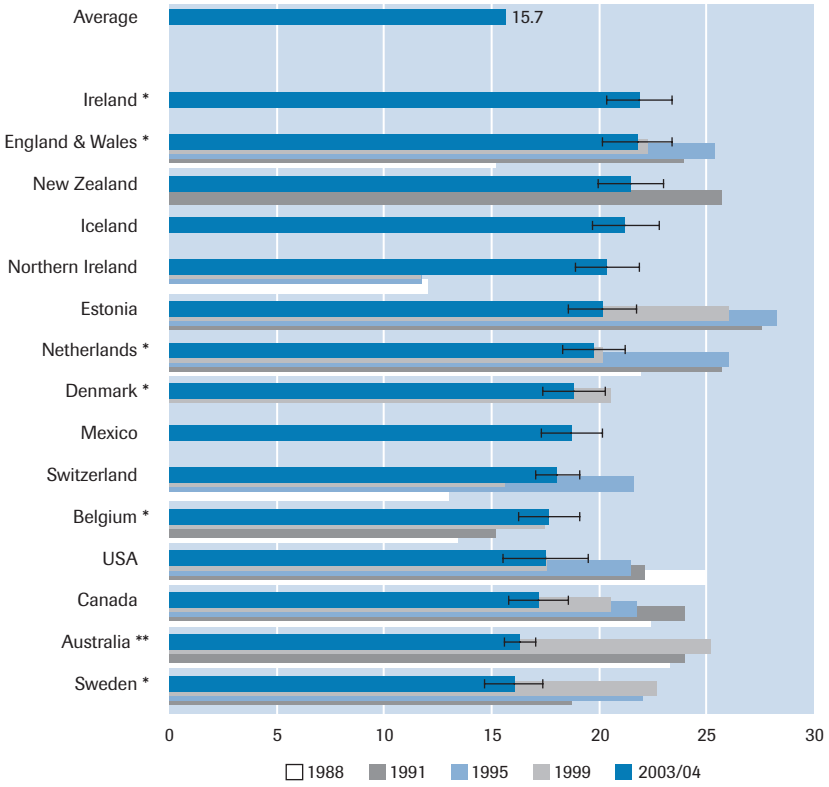
Country rates

The first result to be reported on is the percentage of people per country victimised once or more in 2004 by any of the ten common crimes – the overall one-year victimisation prevalence rate. This result is a simple measure for the overall risk of victimisation by common crime at the national level in 30 countries. Figure 3 shows current and historical data of 15 countries with rates above the mean of participating countries in 2004/2005. Figure 4 details results of 15 countries with rates below the mean. Our discussion will first focus on the 'high crime countries'.

Almost 16% of the population of the 30 participating countries has been a victim of any crime in 2004. The four countries with the highest overall prevalence victimisation rates in 2004 are Ireland, England & Wales, New Zealand and Iceland[3]. Other countries with comparatively high victimisation rates are Northern Ireland, Estonia, the Netherlands, Denmark, Mexico, Switzerland and Belgium. All these countries have overall victimisation rates that are statistically significantly higher than the average of the 30 participating countries. The USA, Canada, Australia and Sweden show rates near the average. Compared to past results, they have dropped several places in the ranking on overall victimisation.

3 No historical data from previous ICVS-based surveys are available for Ireland and Iceland. In Ireland a crime and victimisation module has been included in the Quarterly National Household Survey in 1998, 2003 and 2006. Results are not comparable with the ICVS due to inter alia different coverage of crimes. The household surveys indicate stable rates of property crimes and a doubling of crimes of violence since 1998 (Central Statistics Office, 2007).

Figure 3 **Overall victimisation for 10 crimes; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) of the top 15 countries and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

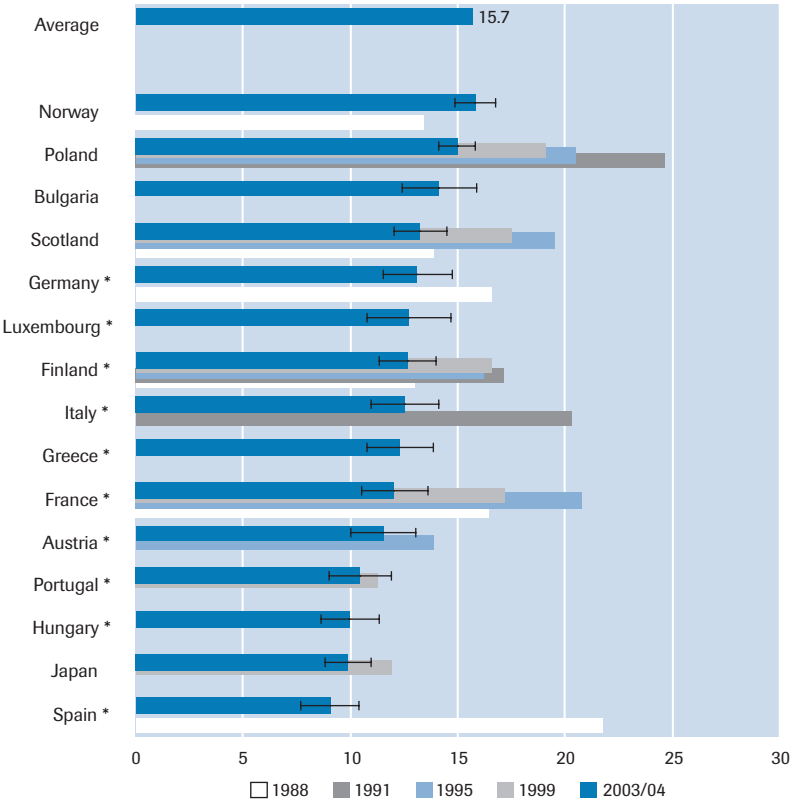


* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The Australian victimisation rate is based on 9 crimes because the question about victimisation by sexual offences was omitted; if data on sexual victimisation were included, the overall victimisation rate would be a percentage point higher (est. 16.5%).

The ten countries with the highest rates comprise both very affluent countries such as Switzerland, Ireland and Iceland as less affluent countries (Estonia and Mexico). This result refutes conventional wisdom about poverty as dominant root cause of common crime. Most of the high crime countries are relatively highly urbanised, although this is not true for Ireland (Van Dijk, Manchin, Van Kesteren, Hideg, 2007).

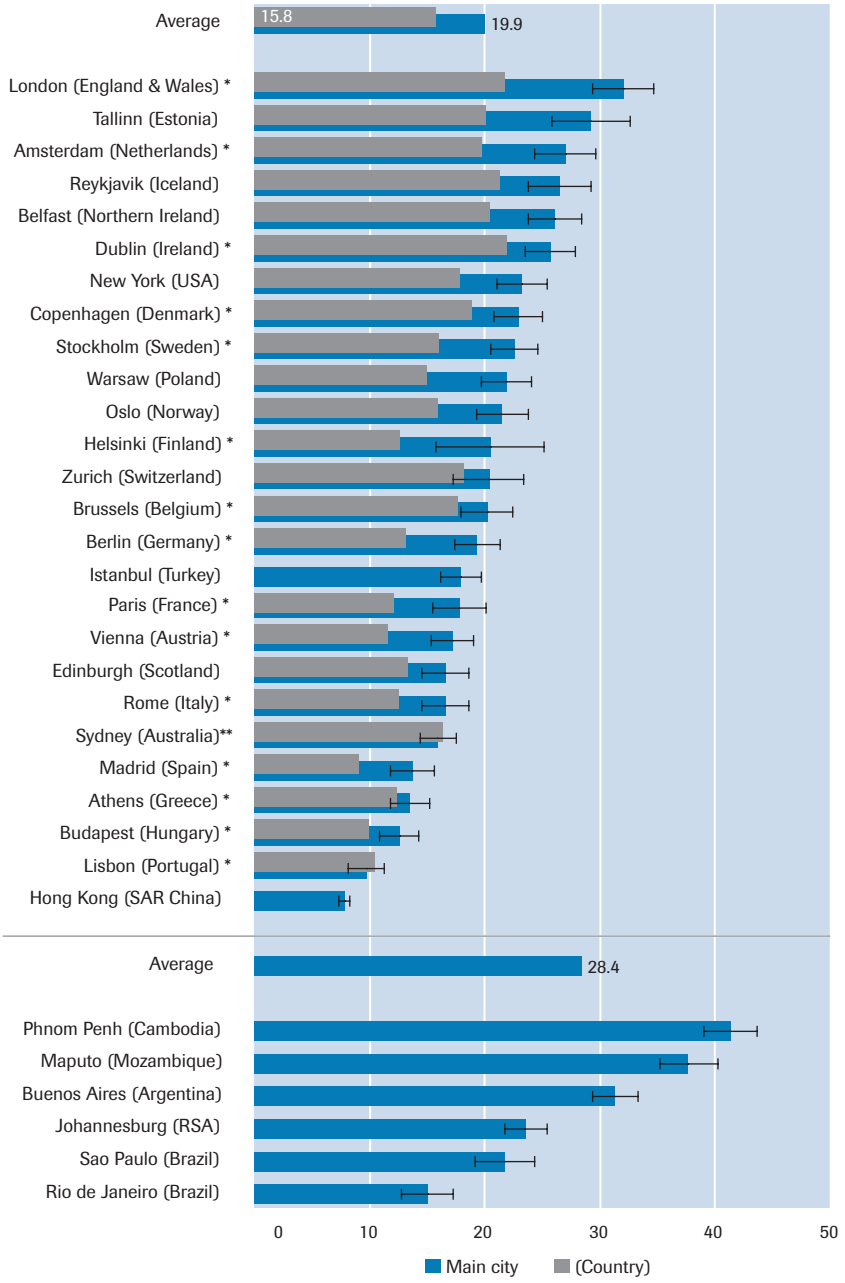
Figure 4 **Overall victimisation for 10 crimes; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) of the bottom 15 countries and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

Countries with victimisation levels just under the mean include Norway, Poland, Bulgaria, Scotland, Germany, Luxembourg and Finland. Lowest levels were found in Spain, Japan, Hungary, Portugal, Austria, France, Greece and Italy. The latter eight countries all have victimisation levels significantly below the average of participating countries. They can be regarded as low crime countries in this context. This group is fairly heterogeneous, both geographically and in terms of affluence (GDPPC). Finland, Greece and Poland are comparatively less urbanised than other European countries (Van Dijk, Manchin, Van Kesteren, Hideg, 2007).

Figure 5 **Overall victimisation for 10 crimes; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) of main cities and national populations of 28 countries. 2002-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

City rates

Figure 5 shows the results of surveys conducted in 32 main cities concerning victimisation by any crime. For ease of reference, the picture also presents the national rates of the countries presented above, where available. Figure 5 confirms that levels of victimisation by common crime are universally higher among city populations than among national populations. Lisbon forms the only exception to this criminological rule.
The mean victimisation rate of the participating cities is 21.7%, whereas the mean national rate was 15.8%. In almost all countries, risks to be criminally victimised are a quarter to a third higher for main city inhabitants than for others.

On average city rates are higher in developing countries (28.4%) than in developed countries (19.9%) but three of the six cities in developing countries are within the range of the main cities in developed countries. The ranking of cities in terms of victimisation puts Phnom Penh and Maputo on top. Relatively high rates are also found in London and Buenos Aires. Tallinn, Amsterdam, Reykjavik, Belfast, Dublin and Johannesburg have rates above the global mean. Victimisation rates near the global city average of 21.7% are found in New York, Copenhagen, Stockholm, Sao Paulo and Oslo. The five participating cities with the lowest victimisation rates are Hong Kong, Lisbon, Budapest, Athens and Madrid.

2.3 Trends in overall victimisation

Figures 3 and 4 allow a comparison of the 2004 rates with rates recorded in previous rounds of the ICVS for most of the participating countries. Available trend data point to a curvilinear trend in victimisation by common crime since 1988. The rates of victimisation of North America, Australia and the nine European countries for which ICVS-based trend data are available, show distinct downward trends. In the USA the drop in crime was already in evidence between 1988 and 1992. According to ICVS data, the level of common crime in Europe reached a plateau around 1995 and has shown a steady decline over the past ten years. The level of victimisation in Europe has now decreased to the levels of 1990. No drops in overall victimisation can be observed in the ICVS-based trend data on Belgium and Northern Ireland[4].

4 No comparable data on the trend in victimisation in Northern Ireland between 1999 and 2004 are available from national surveys. Over all victimization rates increased between 2000 and 2003/2004 (from 19.7% to 21.4 %) and dropped thereafter to 17.3% in 2004/2005 (B. French & R. Freel, Research and Statistical Bulletin 2/2007). The ICVS switched in Northern Ireland from face to face interviewing in 2000 and before to CATI in 2005. This switch to CATI has enhanced comparability between the Northern Irish rates and the rates from other European countries where the ICVS has always been executed with CATI, but it may have affected the change estimate for Northern Ireland in unknown ways.

The results show that trends in victimisation show very similar patterns in the majority of countries. As a consequence, the ranking of countries has not been much affected by recent downward trends. A drop in national victimisation rates does not necessarily result in a lower international ranking. The ranking of countries in the fifth sweep of the survey correlated[5] fairly strongly with the ranking in the fourth sweep (r=0.47, n=15), the third sweep (r=0.53, n=13) and the second sweep (r=0.52; n=8). Over a longer time period, the ranking has been drastically altered, though. The ranking of countries in the first sweep differed markedly from that in the fifth sweep (r= -.15; n=13). In the first sweep for example Northern Ireland, Switzerland and Belgium featured as low victimisation countries and England & Wales was not yet among the top five.

5 Spearman rank correlation.

3 Victimisation by vehicle related crimes

Rates of victimisation by specific crimes will be primarily presented in tables detailing 2003/04 rates and available, older rates at country level as well as 2003/04 rates in main cities, distinguishing between cities in developed and developing countries. The ICVS and EU ICS first of all contain a series of questions on crimes related to vehicles owned by the household, including cars, motorcycles and bicycles. The first questions relate to cars, vans and trucks (hereafter called 'cars'). The relevant crimes are (i) theft of a car and (ii) theft from or out of a car.

3.1 Theft of cars

In industrialised countries, cars are stolen for two main reasons: either for 'joyriding' or temporary transportation (when the car is usually recovered[1]), or for extended personal use, resale or stripping. The ICVS-based rates cover all types of car theft. Table 4 shows information on car thefts, including those for the purpose of 'joyriding'.

Among the 30 participating countries, 0.8% of citizens had experienced the theft of a car. Among inhabitants of main cities this was 1.3% (1.1 % in developed countries and 1.8 in developing countries). As with overall levels of common crime, rates of car theft have gone down in most countries. In many countries car theft rates have been halved since the mid 1990s. This downward trend is the more striking since levels of car ownership have gone up in many countries, most notably in Spain, Estonia and Poland.

Since only car owners can become victims of car theft, risks of car theft are often expressed as the rates of car owners victimised by theft. Such owner victimisation rates reflect the risks of car owners/users living or visiting the country to have their cars stolen. In figure 6 we show the owners-based victimisation rates as well as the population-based victimisation rates of 2003/04.

The mean victimisation rate for owners is 0.9. Ranking countries in terms of car owners' victimisation rates is very similar to that of the victimisation rates per 100,000 population shown above, with the exception of Bulgaria, Mexico, Poland and, to a slightly lesser extent, Estonia. The owners' victimisation rates in these countries, where car ownership rates are still comparatively low, rank somewhat higher than their general prevalence rates.

1 Within the category of 'joyriding' a further distinction must be made between theft for the purpose of transportation as such and theft for the purpose of driving a stolen car at high speed for 'kicks'.

The nature of car theft in Asia, Latin America and Africa may be different, cars are more often stolen just to keep or to be used in criminal activities and in industrialised countries. For more information on the southern African surveys, see Naudé, Prinsloo & Ladikos (2006).

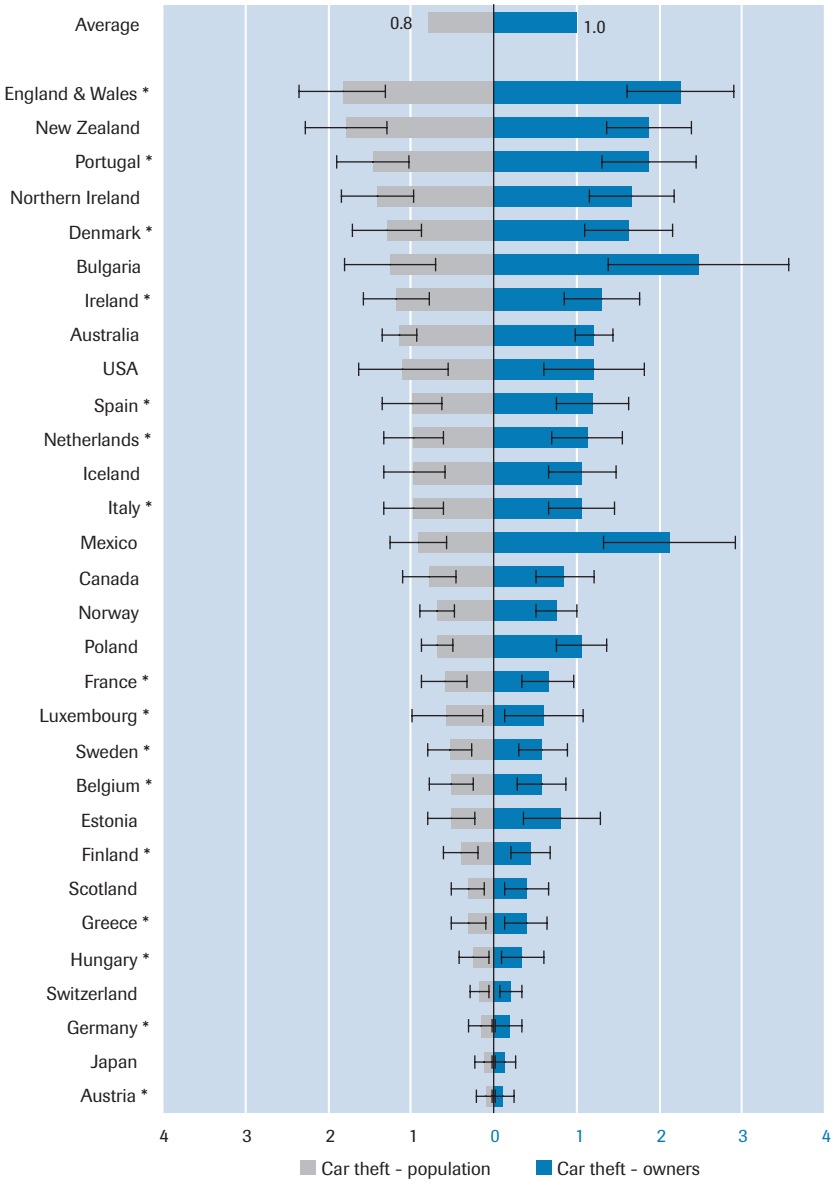
Table 4 **Theft of a car; One year prevalence rates for the population in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

Countries	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003-2004		*Main cities*	2001-2004	
England & Wales	1.8	3.7	2.5	2.1	1.8	*	Rome (Italy)	3.4	*
New Zealand		2.7			1.8		Dublin (Ireland)	3.0	*
Portugal				0.9	1.5	*	Buenos Aires (Argentina)	2.1	
Northern Ireland	1.6		1.6	1.2	1.4		Lisbon (Portugal)	2.0	*
Denmark					1.3	*	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	1.9	
Bulgaria					1.2		Stockholm (Sweden)	1.8	*
Ireland					1.2	*	Madrid (Spain)	1.8	*
Australia	2.3	3.1	.	1.9	1.1		Helsinki (Finland)	1.7	*
USA	2.1	2.6	1.9	0.5	1.1		New York (USA)	1.6	
Spain	1.4				1.0	*	London (England)	1.3	*
Netherlands	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.4	1.0	*	Reykjavik (Iceland)	1.0	
Iceland					1.0		Copenhagen (Denmark)	1.0	*
Italy		2.7	.		1.0	*	Oslo (Norway)	1.0	
Mexico					0.9		Istanbul (Turkey)	0.9	
Canada	0.8	1.3	1.5	1.4	0.8		Brussels (Belgium)	0.9	*
Norway	1.1				0.7		Sydney (Australia)	0.7	
Poland		0.7	0.9	1.0	0.7		Amsterdam (Netherlands)	0.7	*
France	2.4		1.6	1.7	0.6	*	Athens (Greece)	0.7	*
Luxembourg					0.6	*	Warsaw (Poland)	0.6	
Sweden		1.7	1.2	1.3	0.5	*	Tallinn (Estonia)	0.6	
Belgium	0.8	1.0		0.7	0.5	*	Berlin (Germany)	0.4	*
Estonia		0.7	1.8	0.9	0.5		Budapest (Hungary)	0.4	*
Finland	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.4	*	Edinburgh (Scotland)	0.4	
Scotland	0.8		1.7	0.7	0.3		Vienna (Austria)	0.4	*
Greece					0.3	*	Zurich (Switzerland)	0.2	
Hungary					0.2	*	Paris (France)	0.2	*
Switzerland	0.0		0.1	0.3	0.2		Hong Kong (China)	0.0	
Germany	0.4				0.2	*	Average	1.1	
Japan				0.1	0.1		*Cities in developing countries*		
Austria			0.1		0.1	*	Sao Paulo (Brazil)	4.2	
							Johannesburg (RSA)	2.6	
							Maputo (Mozambique)	1.9	
							Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	1.7	
							Lima (Peru)	0.3	
							Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	0.2	
Average**	1.2	1.8	1.2	1.0	0.8		Average	1.8	

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

Figure 6 **Theft of a car: one year prevalence rates for owners and the population in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries. 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



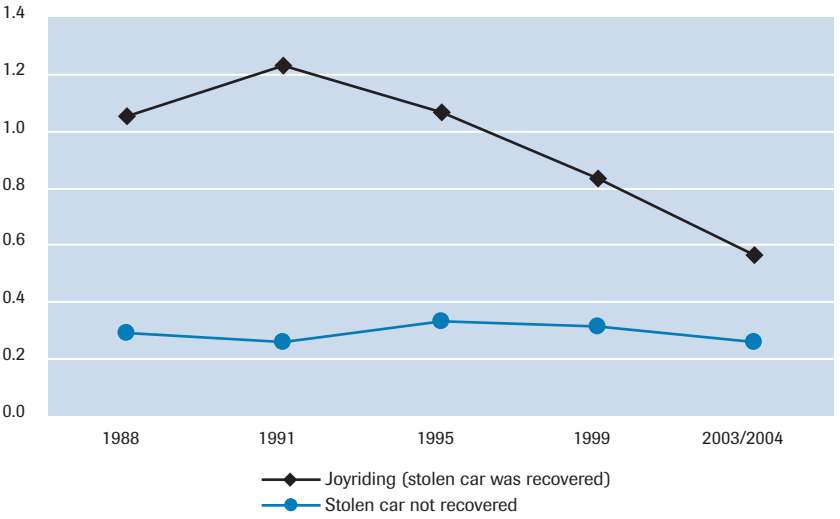
* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

The higher ownership victimisation rates in low car ownership countries, such as Bulgaria, Mexico, Poland and Estonia, may suggest that risks among car owners of having their cars stolen are higher in countries where fewer cars are available. However, previous analyses at both the European and global level have not confirmed this hypothesis (Van Kesteren, Mayhew, Nieuwbeerta, 2000; Van Dijk, 1999). In fact, risks for car owners tend to increase as target availability in a country increases, or at least remain stable. A European example of a country with fairly high rates of ownership where owners are nevertheless more at risk than in many countries with lower ownership rates is England & Wales.

Trends in professional car theft and 'joyriding' respectively

Car theft has shown a near universal downward trend since 1993, with the largest drops recorded in France, Italy, Sweden and England & Wales. For thirteen countries data are available on trends in car theft, including joyriding since 1988[2]. A special analysis was made of trends in professional car theft and joyriding separately. Figure 7 shows the results.

Figure 7 **Trends in theft of a car, broken down by type of theft; one-year prevalence rates (percentages) for countries for which data is available for at least three rounds of surveys*. Data from the 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS**



2 The 13 countries for which data is available are: Australia, Belgium, Canada, England & Wales, Estonia, Finland, France, the Netherlands, Northern Ireland, Poland, Scotland, Sweden and USA.

Figure 7 shows that in the 13 countries that could be included in the analysis, the mean rates of professional car thefts have remained stable since 1988. The decrease in overall rates of car theft is fully caused by a sharp drop (of 50% or more) in cases of joyriding since 1991. In 1991 car owners in the 13 countries who had their cars stolen had on average a chance of four in five to recoup their vehicle. In 2004 this chance has decreased to one in two[3]. Victims in Poland (34%) and Hungary (35%) were least likely to get their cars back, indicating more thefts executed by professionals. Appendix gives country details.

The downward trend in car thefts in Europe cannot be explained by a decrease in car ownership because, as noted, car ownership rates in Europe have actually gone up. Details on car ownership levels are in appendix 9.1 tables 9 and 10. The most plausible factor in the decrease of car theft rates across Europe is improved and more widely used anti-theft measures such as steering column locks, alarms and electronic ignition systems. These measures are likely to have had the greatest impact on levels of joy-riding and other forms of non-professional, opportunistic theft. If cars are stolen, it is now more often by professional gangs using sophisticated techniques or violence, breaking through protective devices installed.

3.2 Thefts from or out of cars

Respondents were also asked about thefts from a car, van or truck. This covers items left in the vehicle (such as coats), equipment within it (such as audio equipment and mobile telephones), and parts taken off it (such as wing mirrors and badges). Table 5 shows the 2004 rates for theft from cars.

Among the 30 countries prevalence rates were highest in New Zealand, Estonia, England & Wales, Ireland, USA and Portugal, all having a 5% victimisation rate or higher. In these countries one in twenty citizens experienced such crime at least once a year. The lowest risks were found in Japan, Greece, Germany, Hungary, and Finland: 2% or less.

3 The British Crime Survey confirms a major drop in joyriding and little or no decrease in thefts of cars that are not recovered inrecent years. Available data from national administrations of car thefts in France, Australia and The Netherlands show the same dual patterns of declining theft rates and declining recovery rates (Postma, 2007).

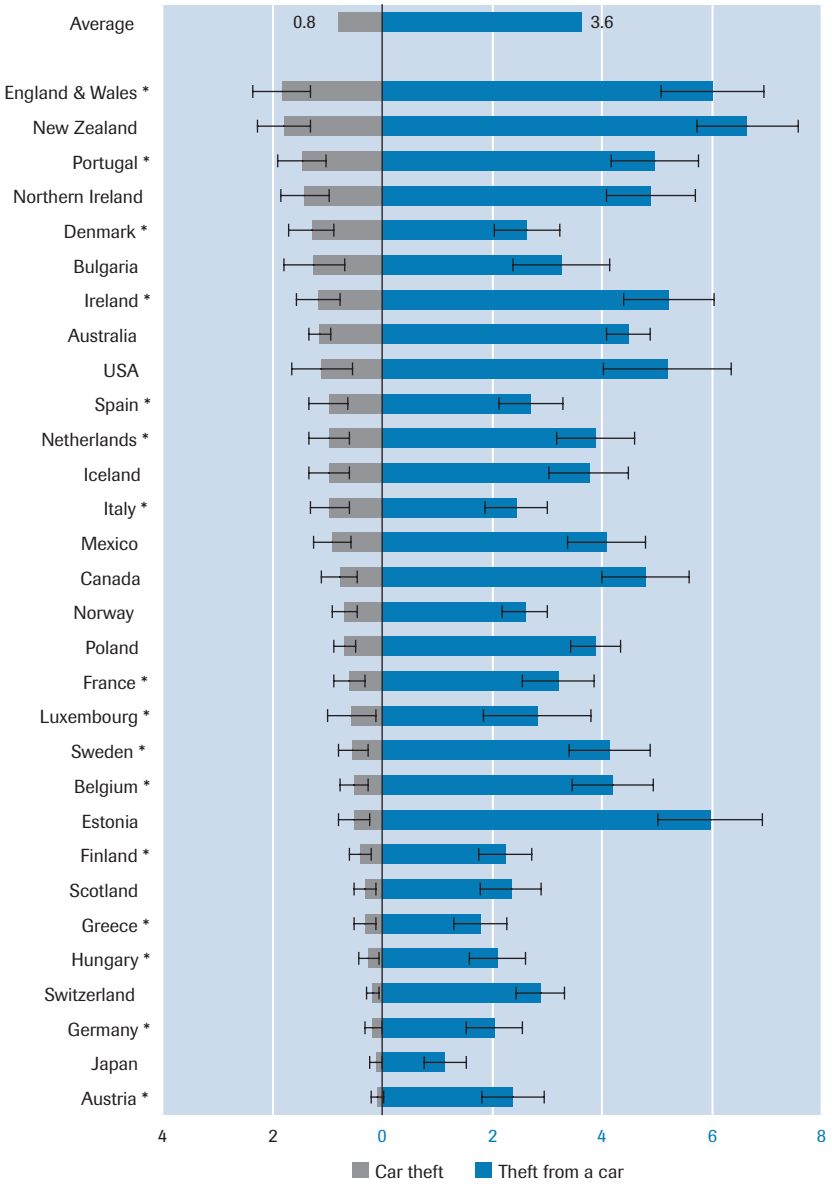
Table 5 Theft from a car; One year prevalence victimisation rates in 2003/04 in the population (percentages) in countries and main cities and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003-2004		*Main cities*	2001-2004	
New Zealand		6.9			6.6		London (England)	8.5	*
England & Wales	5.6	8.6	8.1	6.4	6.0	*	Tallinn (Estonia)	8.4	
Estonia		7.3	7.7	9.1	6.0		Belfast (Northern Ireland)	6.7	
Ireland					5.2	*	New York (USA)	6.6	
USA	9.2	7.0	7.5	6.4	5.2		Brussels (Belgium)	6.2	*
Portugal				4.9	5.0	*	Dublin (Ireland)	6.2	*
Northern Ireland	4.0	.	3.1	2.7	4.9		Rome (Italy)	5.4	*
Canada	7.2	7.3	6.2	5.4	4.8		Warsaw (Poland)	5.0	
Australia	6.9	6.6		6.8	4.5		Sydney (Australia)	4.9	
Belgium	2.7	3.9	.	3.6	4.2	*	Reykjavik (Iceland)	4.6	
Sweden		3.9	4.9	5.3	4.2	*	Vienna (Austria)	4.5	*
Mexico					4.1		Stockholm (Sweden)	4.4	*
Poland		5.3	5.7	5.5	3.9		Amsterdam (Netherlands)	4.2	*
Netherlands	5.2	6.8	5.4	3.9	3.9	*	Helsinki (Finland)	4.2	*
Iceland					3.8		Madrid (Spain)	3.9	*
Bulgaria					3.3		Berlin (Germany)	3.9	*
France	6.0		7.2	5.5	3.2	*	Athens (Greece)	3.7	*
Switzerland	1.9		3.0	1.7	2.9		Oslo (Norway)	3.5	
Luxembourg					2.8	*	Istanbul (Turkey)	3.5	
Spain	9.6				2.7	*	Edinburgh (Scotland)	3.2	
Denmark				3.4	2.6	*	Paris (France)	3.0	*
Norway	2.8				2.6		Lisbon (Portugal)	2.9	*
Italy		7.0			2.4	*	Budapest (Hungary)	2.2	*
Austria			1.6		2.4	*	Zurich (Switzerland)	1.9	
Scotland	5.4	.	6.6	4.2	2.3		Copenhagen (Denmark)	1.5	*
Finland	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.2	*	Hong Kong (China)	0.5	
Hungary					2.1	*	Average	4.4	
Germany	4.7				2.0	*	*Cities in developing countries*		
Greece	.				1.8	*	Buenos Aires (Argentina)	7.2	
Japan				1.6	1.1		Sao Paulo (Brazil)	7.2	
							Maputo (Mozambique)	5.3	
							Lima (Peru)	4.5	
							Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	4.4	
							Johannesburg (RSA)	3.3	
							Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	1.2	
Average**	5.3	6.1	5.4	4.7	3.6		Average	4.7	

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

Figure 8 **Car theft and theft from a car: One year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

As was the case with car theft, risks of theft from cars among car owners are higher than among households generally. The mean owners' victimisation rate was 4.3%. Ranking of countries according to owners' victimisation differs only marginally from the ranking of general prevalence rates. As was the case with car thefts, Estonia, Mexico and to a lesser extent Poland have proportionally higher ownership victimisation risks than general victimisation risks. In Estonia and Mexico one in ten car owners have parts of their cars stolen every year. This result suggests the operation of a relatively vibrant market for second hand spare car parts. Almost all countries show downward trends in theft from or out of cars. Exceptions are Belgium and Northern Ireland[4]. Significant drops in this type of 'petty crime' were observed in Estonia, England & Wales, the USA, the Netherlands, France, Spain, Italy and Germany. As with car theft, improved security and the use of more precautionary measures, such as removing wipers or portable audio equipment, may have contributed to this fall.

Having something stolen from or out of a car was much more common than having the car itself stolen. The mean victimisation rate for car theft was 0.8% and for theft from a car 3.6%. The rates of car theft and theft from cars are fairly strongly correlated ($r= 0.73$; $n=29$, $p<0.05$). A clear outlier is the high rate of theft from cars in Estonia. Figure 8 shows the 2003/2004 rates for car theft and theft from car graphically.

3.3 Motorcycle theft

There were very different levels of motorcycle ownership in the 30 countries. On average, 17.5% of households own one or more motorcycles, defined as a 'motorized two-wheeler'. Ownership was most common in Italy (33% had a motorized two-wheeler), Greece (32%), Japan (29%) and Sweden (25%). Other countries with more than 20% ownership were Finland, Austria, the Netherlands and Germany. In several countries ownership rates have gone up over the past 10 or 15 years, including Scandinavia and the United Kingdom. Table 6 gives an overview of country and city rates of motorcycle theft.

The mean victimisation rate for motorcycle theft is 0.3%. The highest rates were in Italy, England & Wales, Japan, Switzerland, Sweden and Greece (0.5% or more). Among the cities, Phnom Penh stands out with a one-year victimisation rate for motorcycle theft of over 6%.

4 The national crime victim survey of Northern Ireland indicates an increase in theft from car between 2000 and 2003/2004 but a sharp drop in 2005.

The country trends in motorcycle theft are diverse. A clear and consistent upward trend is evident in England & Wales. The upward trend may only in part be attributed to the modest rise in motorcycle ownership. Ownership rates are in appendix 9.1 tables 9 and 10. Stable trends can be seen in Sweden, Finland and Denmark, countries with falling general crime and car theft rates. The drop in motorcycle theft is considerable in Poland and Belgium.

Owners' prevalence rates
Reflecting the generally small proportion of owners, theft rates for owners are substantially higher than population rates. The mean ownership victimisation rate for motorcycle theft is 1.6%. Risks of motorcycle owners having their vehicles stolen are much higher than those of car owners (0.9%).

England & Wales stand out with a relatively high risk for owners (6.2%). In 1988, the England & Wales ownership victimisation rates were still below 1%. Other countries where owners are especially at risk include Italy (2.9%) and Ireland (2.7%), Scotland (2.4%) and Switzerland (2.4%). The ranking of countries on owner victimisation is broadly similar to the population-based ranking (Spearman r=0.78), with some notable exceptions. Since rates are calculated for a small subset of respondents, margins of error are comparatively large. See figure 8 for details.

The victimisation rates for owners in main cities (not depicted here) show some remarkable results. The mean rate is 3.2%. The highest rates are found in Paris (9.5%). Other cities with high risks are Sao Paulo (9.3%), London (7.9%), Phnom Penh (7.5%), Rio de Janeiro (6.9%), Zurich (5.6%) and Buenos Aires (5.6%). For owners of motorcycles living in these cities, risks of theft are considerable, even compared to the risks of bicycle theft for bicycle owners elsewhere.

Generally, motorcycle thefts were most common where motorcycles were more commonly owned, though England & Wales and Ireland (where ownership is in the middle range) are exceptions. Motorcycle ownership rates and overall rates of motorcycle theft are moderately strongly related ($r=.50$; $n=28$ $p<0.05$). Also risks for owners tend to be higher in countries where ownership is more common, for example in Italy. In other words, as with cars, a more plentiful supply of targets appears to encourage rather than dampen theft 'demand'. One reason for this may simply be that in countries with high ownership more potential offenders are used to and able to ride motorcycles. In addition, demand for second hand motorcycles or parts may be more extended.

Figure 9 combines the data for population and ownership based theft.

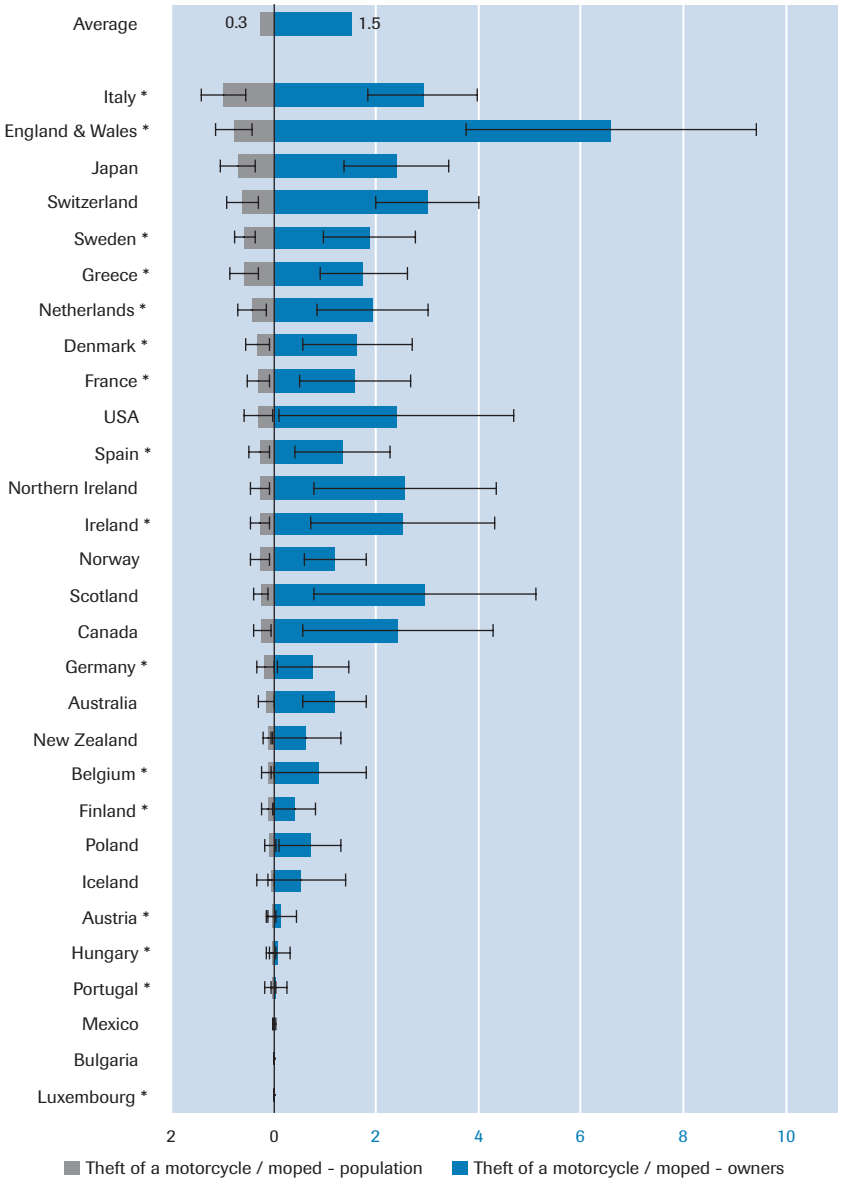
Table 6 Theft of a motorcycle; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 for the population (percentages) in countries and main cities and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003-2004		*Main cities*	2001-2004	
Italy		1.5			1.0		Paris (France)	1.0	*
England & Wales	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.8	*	Rome (Italy)	0.9	*
Japan				1.0	0.7	*	Zurich (Switzerland)	0.8	
Switzerland	1.2		1.4	0.2	0.6		Berlin (Germany)	0.6	*
Sweden		0.6	0.5	0.4	0.6		London (England)	0.5	*
Greece					0.6	*	Athens (Greece)	0.5	*
Netherlands	0.4	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.4	*	Dublin (Ireland)	0.5	*
Denmark				0.7	0.3	*	Copenhagen (Denmark)	0.4	*
France	0.6		0.8	0.3	0.3	*	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	0.4	*
USA	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	*	Stockholm (Sweden)	0.2	*
Spain	0.8				0.3		Belfast (Northern Ireland)	0.2	
Northern Ireland	0.1		0.0	0.0	0.3	*	Oslo (Norway)	0.2	
Ireland					0.3		Sydney (Australia)	0.2	
Norway	0.3				0.3	*	Reykjavik (Iceland)	0.1	
Scotland	0.3		0.1	0.1	0.2		Lisbon (Portugal)	0.1	*
Canada	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2		Madrid (Spain)	0.1	*
Estonia		0.7	0.2		na		Hong Kong (China)	0.1	
Germany	0.2				0.2	*	Edinburgh (Scotland)	0.1	
Australia	0.3	0.3		0.1	0.1		Vienna (Austria)	0.1	*
New Zealand		0.3			0.1		Helsinki (Finland)	0.1	*
Belgium	0.4	1.1	.	0.3	0.1	*	Budapest (Hungary)	0.0	*
Finland	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	*	Brussels (Belgium)	0.0	*
Poland		1.0	0.3	0.1	0.1		Istanbul (Turkey)	0.0	
Iceland					0.1		Warsaw (Poland)	0.0	
Austria			0.0		0.0	*	New York (USA)	0.0	
Hungary					0.0	*	Average	0.3	
Portugal				0.3	0.0	*	*Cities in developing countries*		
Bulgaria					0.0		Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	6.6	
Luxembourg					0.0	*	Sao Paulo (Brazil)	0.9	
Mexico					0.0		Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	0.5	
							Buenos Aires (Argentina)	0.5	
							Maputo (Mozambique)	0.3	
							Lima (Peru)	0.2	
							Johannesburg (RSA)	0.0	
Average**	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3		Average	1.3	

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

Figure 9 **Theft of a motorcycle / moped; one year prevalence rates for owners and the population in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries. 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

3.4 Bicycle theft

The mean victimisation rate for bicycle theft is 2.9% for countries and 3.3% for main cities. Rates of bicycle theft are on average lower in cities in developing countries, with Phnom Penh as exception (5.3%). Table 7 shows rates of victimisation of the public at large in 2003/04 and previous years. The highest population-based bicycle theft risks at country level were in the Netherlands, Denmark, Finland, Japan and Sweden (5% or more). The lowest risks were in Portugal, Spain, France, Bulgaria, Australia and New Zealand (below 1.5%).

Trends are dissimilar across countries. The Netherlands, Sweden, Estonia and France show distinct drops in the level of bicycle theft. In the Netherlands bicycle theft rates are now below the level they were in 1988. Bicycle theft rates have remained stable in Belgium, Finland and Denmark as well as in the USA. Bicycle theft rate has increased since 1988 in England & Wales and declined between 1995 and 2000. Rates in 2004 have remained stable[5].

The ranking on bicycle theft in main cities follows that of countries, with Amsterdam, Copenhagen and Stockholm on top.

Table 7 Theft of a bicycle; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003-2004	*Main cities*	2001-2004
Netherlands	7.5	10.0	9.5	7.0	6.6 *	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	12.0 *
Denmark				6.7	6.0 *	Copenhagen (Denmark)	9.3 *
Finland	3.1	5.0	5.1	4.9	5.2 *	Stockholm (Sweden)	7.0 *
Japan				6.6	5.1	Reykjavik (Iceland)	6.2
Sweden	.	7.0	8.8	7.2	5.0 *	Warsaw (Poland)	4.8
Iceland					4.6	London (England)	4.7 *
Switzerland	3.2		7.0	4.7	4.6	Oslo (Norway)	4.6
Belgium	2.7	2.8		3.5	4.2 *	Zurich (Switzerland)	4.6
Norway	2.8				4.2	Berlin (Germany)	4.1 *
Mexico					3.7	Helsinki (Finland)	4.0 *
Estonia		6.2	5.2	4.0	3.6	Dublin (Ireland)	4.0 *
Germany	3.3	.	.	.	3.4 *	Tallinn (Estonia)	3.3
USA	3.0	2.9	3.3	2.1	2.9	New York (USA)	3.0
Canada	3.4	3.7	3.3	3.5	2.7	Edinburgh (Scotland)	2.7
England & Wales	1.0	3.0	3.5	2.4	2.6 *	Paris (France)	2.7 *
Poland		4.2	3.2	3.6	2.6	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	2.6

5 The British Crime Survey shows a rise in bicycle theft since 2001.

Table 7 (Continued)

Countries	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003-2004	*Main cities*	2001-2004
Ireland					2.5 *	Vienna (Austria)	2.0 *
Greece					2.1 *	Brussels (Belgium)	1.7 *
Italy		2.3			2.1 *	Hong Kong (SAR China)	1.7
Austria			3.3	.	2.0 *	Budapest (Hungary)	1.6 *
Northern Ireland	1.6		1.2	1.4	1.9	Sydney (Australia)	1.2
Scotland	1.0		1.9	2.0	1.9	Istanbul (Turkey)	1.1
Hungary					1.7 *	Athens (Greece)	0.9 *
Luxembourg					1.6 *	Lisbon (Portugal)	0.7 *
New Zealand		4.4			1.4	Rome (Italy)	0.3 *
Australia	1.9	2.1		2.0	1.2	Madrid (Spain)	0.2 *
Bulgaria					1.1	Average	3.5
France	1.4	.	2.8	1.8	0.9 *	*Cities in developing countries*	
Spain	1.1				0.7 *	Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	5.3
Portugal				0.8	0.5 *	Buenos Aires (Argentina)	4.2
						Lima (Peru)	2.9
						Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	2.5
						Sao Paulo (Brazil)	1.8
						Johannesburg (RSA)	1.3
						Maputo (Mozambique)	0.8
Average**	2.6	4.5	4.5	3.8	2.9	Average	2.7

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

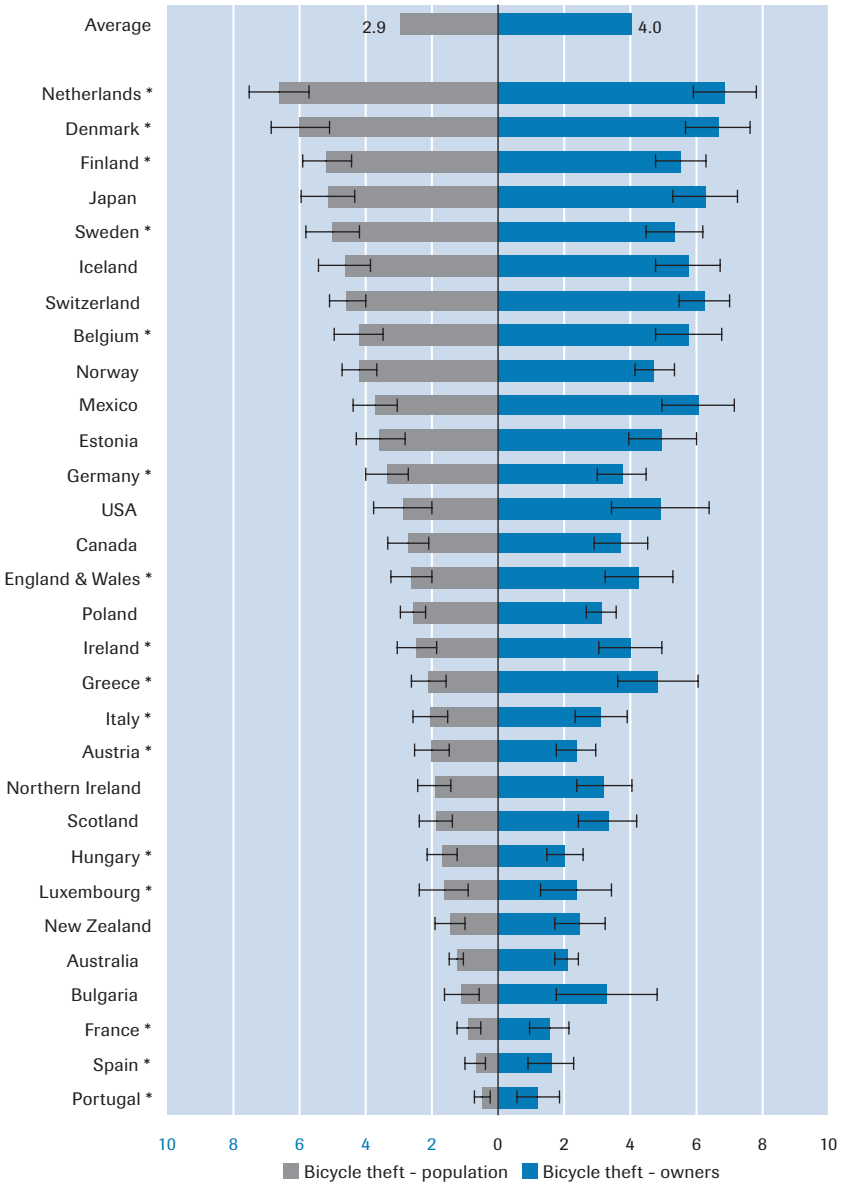
** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

Bicycle ownership and theft

For all countries, bicycle owners were somewhat more likely to have their bicycle stolen (average risk 3.9%) than the average citizen. Risks of bicycle owners are considerably larger than of car owners (average risks 0.9%) or motorcycle owners (1.6%). See figure 10 for details on population-based and owners-based risks.

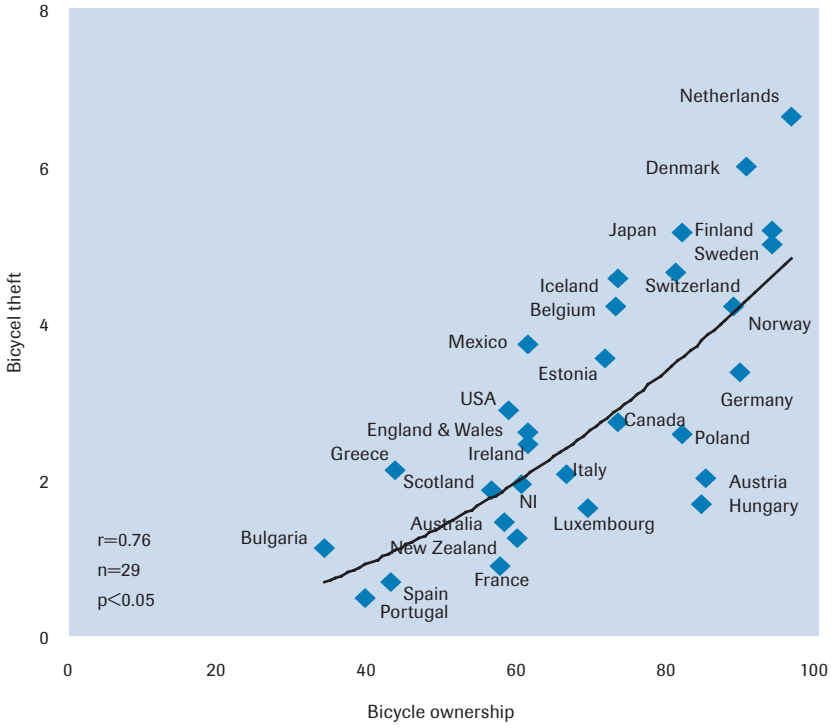
The ownership victimisation rates for bicycle theft correlates very strongly with the population victimisation rate (r=.93). Denmark and the Netherlands share the top position concerning ownership victimisation with 6.9%. Belgium moves up to the third place. Greece – where bicycles are less common – moves up a bit. England & Wales score below the European average on population-based bicycle theft but above the average for owner-based thefts.

Figure 10 **Theft of a bicycle; one year prevalence rates for owners and the population in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries. 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

Figure 11 **Plot of bicycle ownership (percentage ownership in 2004/05) with theft of bicycles (percentage one year prevalence rate in 2003/04) in countries. 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS**



Greater variation exists in household bicycle ownership levels than in car ownership. Among the 30 participating countries, bicycle ownership varies between Portugal, Spain, and Greece with rates below 45% to Germany, Denmark, Finland, Sweden and the Netherlands where ownership is almost universal (80% or higher). Levels of ownership seem to have remained more or less stable in most countries.

There was a strong relationship between levels of bicycle ownership and national levels of bicycle theft ($r=0.76$, $n=30$, $p<0.05$). Figure 11 shows results in the form of a scatterplot. Austria and Hungary deviate somewhat from the slope. Their rates of bicycle theft remain low considering their high levels of ownership. If we assume that the relation between ownership rates and population based victimisation is linear, we can fit a quadratic regression line in the plot with ownership based theft of bicycles.

4 Victimisation by burglary and other theft

4.1 Burglary with entry

Table 8 **Burglary; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

Countries	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003-2004	*Main cities*	2001-2004
England & Wales	2.1	3.0	3.0	2.8	3.5 *	Istanbul (Turkey)	4.6
New Zealand		4.3			3.2	London (England)	4.5 *
Mexico					3.0	Helsinki (Finland)	4.4 *
Denmark				3.1	2.7 *	Tallinn (Estonia)	3.7
Bulgaria					2.5	Brussels (Belgium)	3.1 *
Australia	4.4	3.7		3.9	2.5	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	2.9
Estonia		6.0	4.2	3.7	2.5	Warsaw (Poland)	2.8
USA	3.8	3.1	2.6	1.8	2.5	Vienna (Austria)	2.8 *
Ireland					2.3 *	Zurich (Switzerland)	2.7
Italy		2.4			2.1 *	Dublin (Ireland)	2.6 *
Canada	3.0	3.4	3.4	2.3	2.0	Copenhagen (Denmark)	2.6
Greece					1.8 *	Sydney (Australia)	2.2
Belgium	2.3	2.1		2.0	1.8 *	Reykjavik (Iceland)	2.2
Luxembourg					1.7 *	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	2.1 *
Hungary					1.7 *	Stockholm (Sweden)	2.1 *
Switzerland	1.0		1.3	1.1	1.6	Oslo (Norway)	1.9
France	2.4		2.3	1.0	1.6 *	New York (USA)	1.9
Iceland					1.6	Paris (France)	1.9 *
Scotland	2.0		1.5	1.5	1.5	Athens (Greece)	1.7 *
Northern Ireland	1.1		1.5	1.7	1.4	Rome (Italy)	1.5 *
Poland		2.1	2.0	2.0	1.4	Edinburgh (Scotland)	1.4
Portugal				1.4	1.4 *	Budapest (Hungary)	1.2 *
Netherlands	2.4	2.0	2.6	1.9	1.3 *	Berlin (Germany)	1.1 *
Norway	0.7				1.2	Madrid (Spain)	1.1 *
Germany	1.3				0.9 *	Lisbon (Portugal)	0.7 *
Austria			0.9		0.9 *	Hong Kong (SAR China)	0.6
Japan				1.1	0.9	Average	2.3
Finland	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.3	0.8 *	*Cities in developing countries*	
Spain	1.6				0.8 *	Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	15.8
Sweden		1.4	1.3	1.7	0.7 *	Maputo (Mozambique)	12.6
						Lima (Peru)	6.8
						Johannesburg (RSA)	5.4
						Buenos Aires (Argentina)	2.0
						Sao Paulo (Brazil)	1.5
						Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	1.0
Average**	2.0	2.8	2.1	2.0	1.8	Average	6.4

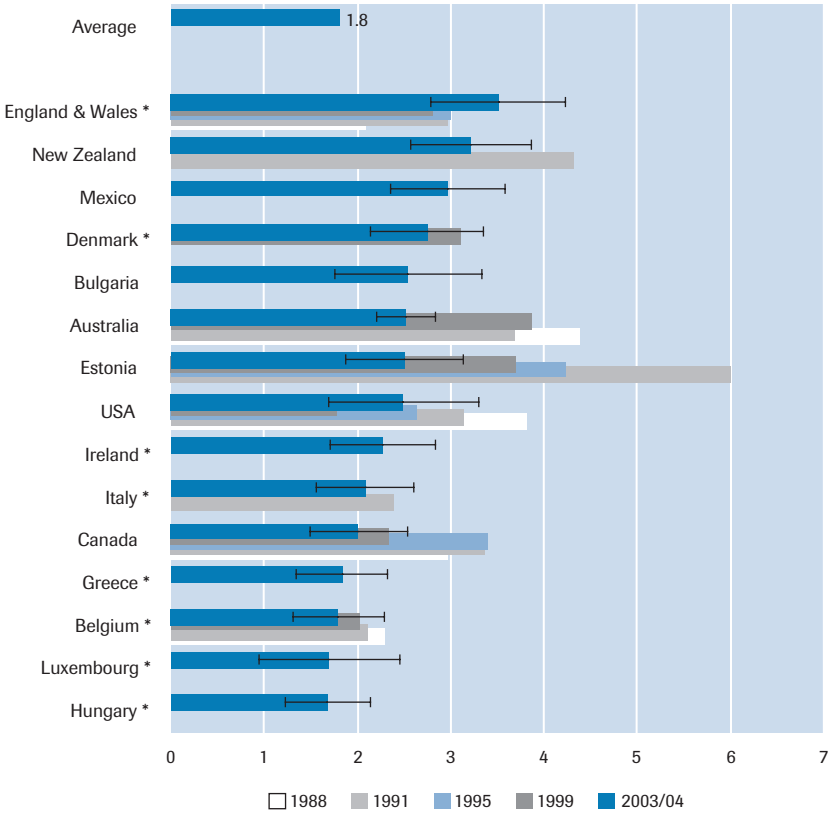
* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

The survey had two measures of burglary: (i) incidents in which the burglar entered the home (burglary with entry); and (ii) incidents of attempted burglary. On average 1.8% of households in participating countries saw their households burgled in 2004. There was a fairly broad range in the proportion of households in 2004 that experienced one or more burglaries with entry. Table 8 shows national and main city rates.

On average, burglary is more common in main cities than in countries (1.8% and 2.3 respectively). Among the participating countries rates are highest rates in England & Wales, New Zealand, Mexico, Denmark, Bulgaria, Australia, Estonia and the USA (all 2.5% or more). The lowest rates were in Sweden, Spain, Finland, Japan, Austria and Germany (below 1%).

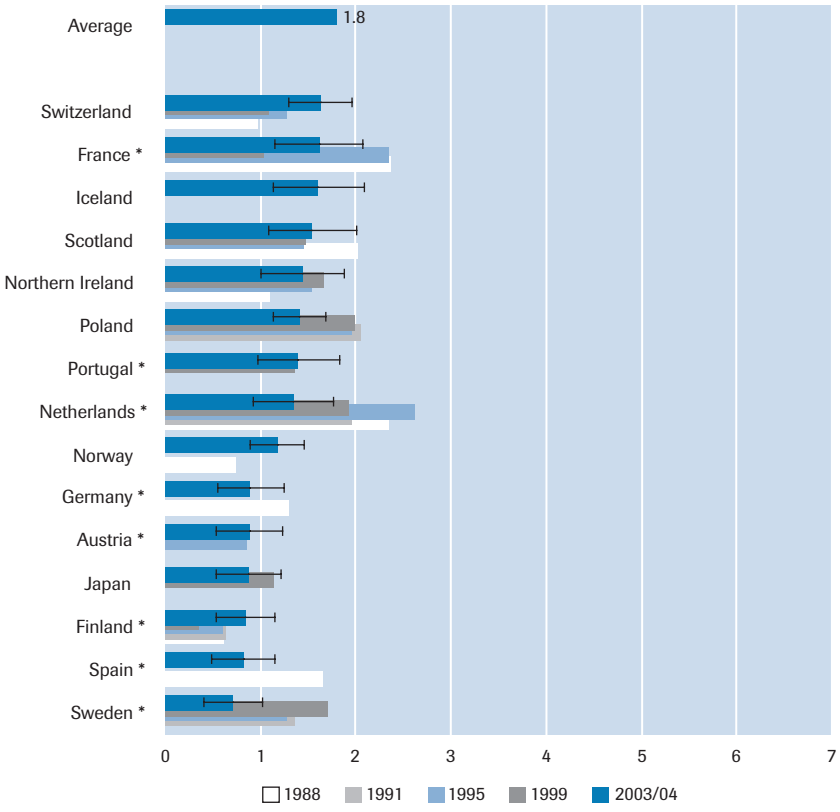
Figure 12 **Burglary; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) of the top 15 countries and results from earlier surveys. 1989–2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

The mean rate of burglary in main cities is 3.2%. Rates are higher in cities in developing countries (6.4%) than in cities in developed countries (2.3%). City rates show extraordinary high rates in Phnom Penh (15.8%) and Maputo (12.6%). Comparatively high rates are also found in Lima (6.8%), Johannesburg (5.4%) and Istanbul (4.6%). Within Western Europe rates are highest in London, Helsinki and Tallinn. The above average rate of Helsinki is remarkable since rates of other crimes in Finland are among the lowest in Europe. Striking are also the comparatively low rates of Rio de Janeiro (1.0%) and Sao Paulo (1.5%). Low burglary rates in Rio de Janeiro have also been measured in an earlier sweep of the ICVS (Van Dijk, 1999).

Figure 13 **Burglary; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) of the bottom 15 countries and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

Burglary rates have declined in most countries but not everywhere. To illustrate these trends historical data on burglary are presented in figures 12 and 13. Burglary rates show divergent trends over time. Significant decreases are found in Australia, Estonia, Canada, France, the Netherlands, Poland, Spain and Sweden. More or less stable rates are evident in Finland, Belgium, Italy and the United Kingdom (England & Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland). In Switzerland and Norway burglary rates seem to have gone up. Diverging trends in this type of crime have brought about significant changes in the rankings of countries. For example, France and the Netherlands, previously featured in the top ten, now enjoy rates below the mean.

Completed and failed burglaries

The ICVS also specifically asks whether someone tried to enter the house and failed (attempted burglary). Figure 13 shows the rates of completed and failed burglaries. Of all households 1.7% had experienced a failed attempt at entry, slightly lower than the percentage of completed burglaries (1.8%). The pattern of relative risk across countries is reasonably similar whether the focus is on attempted burglary or burglary with entry. The main difference is that, compared to their position in respect of burglary with entry, Luxembourg, Belgium, Northern Ireland, Austria and the Netherlands fared relatively worse for attempts. In contrast, compared with the levels of attempts, the level of burglary with entry was relatively higher in Denmark and Estonia.

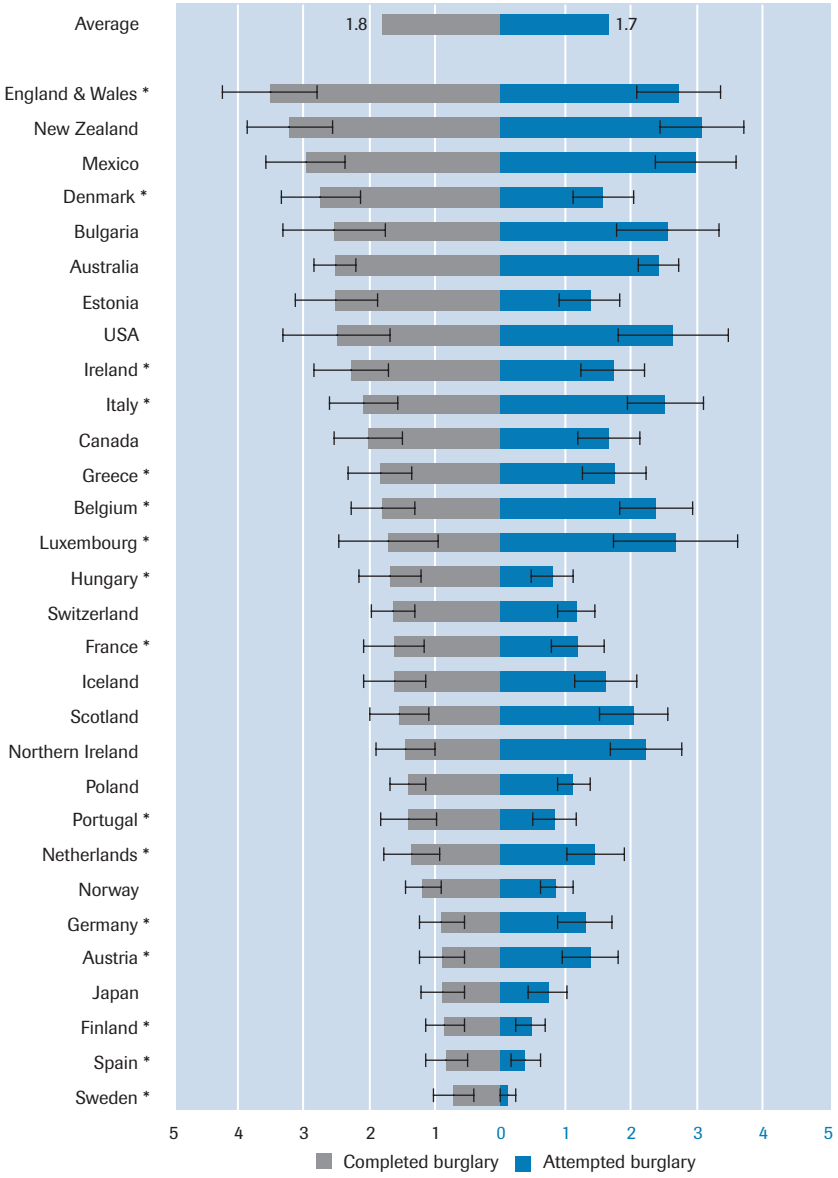
Precautionary measures and burglaries

The proportion of burglaries that involved attempts varied somewhat by country. The figures of failed burglaries were highest in Austria and Belgium (58% failed). In contrast, most burglars in Sweden and Finland got into the house: only about a quarter or less burglaries involved attempts. It stands to reason that in countries where burglar alarms or other precautionary measures are more common a larger proportion of all burglaries fail in the sense that the burglar did not gain entry. In the past, the ICVS results have lent some support to this. The same pattern broadly holds true in the current analysis, although results are not statistically significant.

Many countries show a clear upward trend in the use of burglar alarms and/or special locks since 1988, a trend that is likely to have started in earlier years. There is more elaborate information on upward trends in crime prevention in chapter 12 of this report.

Reductions in levels of burglary might well be the result of improved security among households previously most at risk. Improved security among sufficiently large proportions of vulnerable households may have dissuaded potential burglars from committing burglaries by increasing efforts and risks.

Figure 14 **Burglary; one year prevalence victimisation rates for completed and attempted burglaries in 2003/04 in countries. 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

4.2 Theft of personal property and pickpocketing

The residual category of property crime in the ICVS is theft of personal property (such as a purse, wallet, clothing, sports or work equipment). Most of these crimes are perceived by victims as less serious (Van Kesteren, Mayhew & Nieuwbeerta, 2001). On average, in roughly a third of the cases the victims said they were carrying what was stolen. For present purposes, these are called cases of 'pickpocketing'. Table 9 shows the victimisation rates for personal theft including pickpocketing in 2003/2004 and previous years.

National rates for thefts of personal property are somewhat difficult to interpret because they are likely to be heterogeneous in nature. Taken as a whole, the population of Ireland, Iceland, England & Wales, Switzerland, Estonia, Greece and Northern Ireland experienced the most of such thefts (5% or more were victimised). Of the European cities London stands out with a rate above 10%. Other affluent Western cities with comparatively high theft rates are Reykjavik, New York, Zurich and Oslo. High rates in Ireland are in line with the steep upward trend in this type of crime observed in domestic victimisation surveys conducted in Ireland (Central Statistics Office, 2004)[1].

Trends in personal theft are mainly downwards, though not in England & Wales, Northern Ireland and Norway where rates have gone up. Rates remained stable in the USA.

Table 10 shows the victimisation rates for pickpocketing. Pickpocketing shows a mean of 1.7% in the dataset of countries and of 3.6% in the dataset of main cities. Cities in developing countries show a higher mean rate (6.4%).

Among countries pickpocketing was most common in Greece (4.2% were victimised once or more). Rates were also relatively high in Ireland and Estonia. In previous sweeps, rates were particularly high in Central and Eastern Europe. Levels of pickpocketing seem to have dropped significantly in Poland. Among the main cities Lima and Phnom Penh stand out with rates above 10%. Levels were lowest in Japan, Portugal, Spain, Finland, Sweden and Italy (below 2.5%). In North America victimisation by pickpocketing is also rare but has remained stable. Trends in pickpocketing, unlike those of most other types of property crime, show no downward trends across the board.

1 In an article on the Quarterly National Household Survey, Crime and Victimisation, Quarter 4, 1998 and 2003, the authors report on a 'Sharp rise in level of personal crime' in Ireland since 1998: ' Almost 11% of young adults aged 18-24 reported that they had been victims of either theft or an assault in the 12 months prior to the 2003 survey' (Central Statistics Office, 2004).

Table 9 Theft of personal property (including pickpocketing); one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003-2004	*Main cities*	2001-2004
Ireland					7.2 *	London (England)	10.2 *
Iceland					6.9	Tallinn (Estonia)	9.6
England & Wales	3.1	4.2	5.0	4.6	6.3 *	Reykjavik (Iceland)	8.2
Switzerland	4.5	.	5.7	4.4	5.9	New York (USA)	7.7
Estonia		7.8	5.2	5.4	5.6	Zurich (Switzerland)	7.7
Greece					5.3 *	Oslo (Norway)	7.5
Northern Ireland	2.2		2.5	2.2	5.1	Dublin (Ireland)	6.8 *
Norway	3.2				4.8	Brussels (Belgium)	6.0 *
USA	4.5	5.3	3.9	4.9	4.8	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	5.9
Mexico					4.3	Vienna (Austria)	5.7 *
New Zealand		5.3			4.1	Budapest (Hungary)	5.5 *
Canada	5.5	5.5	5.7	4.7	4.0	Warsaw (Poland)	5.4
Netherlands	4.4	4.6	6.8	4.7	3.7 *	Berlin (Germany)	5.2 *
Australia	5.0	6.5		6.5	3.6	Paris (France)	4.8 *
Poland		8.1	5.6	5.3	3.5	Copenhagen (Denmark)	4.6 *
Austria			5.0		3.4 *	Edinburgh (Scotland)	4.6
Belgium	4.0	3.1		4.1	3.4 *	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	4.4 *
Bulgaria					3.4	Madrid (Spain)	4.4 *
Denmark				4.1	3.3 *	Stockholm (Sweden)	4.0 *
France	3.6		4.0	3.0	3.3 *	Sydney (Australia)	3.7
Germany	4.0				3.0 *	Hong Kong (SAR China)	3.6
Hungary					3.0 *	Athens (Greece)	3.5 *
Scotland	2.6		4.5	4.6	2.9	Rome (Italy)	3.2 *
Luxembourg					2.9 *	Istanbul (Turkey)	3.2
Italy		3.6	.		2.4 *	Helsinki (Finland)	3.0 *
Sweden		4.2	4.6	5.8	2.4 *	Lisbon (Portugal)	2.4 *
Finland	4.3	3.4	3.2	3.3	2.3 *	Average	5.4
Spain	5.2				2.1 *	*Cities in developing countries*	
Portugal				1.9	1.6 *	Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	12.8
Japan				0.5	0.3	Lima (Peru)	12.3
						Maputo (Mozambique)	9.9
						Johannesburg (RSA)	6.9
						Buenos Aires (Argentina)	6.6
						Sao Paulo (Brazil)	2.9
						Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	2.5
Average**	4.0	5.1	4.7	4.1	3.8	Average	5.9

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

Table 10 Pickpocketing; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003-2004	*Main cities*	2001-2004
Greece					4.3 *	Tallinn (Estonia)	6.5
Estonia		3.2	2.5	3.3	3.3	London (England)	5.2 *
Ireland					3.0	Brussels (Belgium)	3.8 *
Australia	0.8	1.0	.	1.2	2.8	Budapest (Hungary)	3.7 *
England & Wales	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.7	2.7 *	Warsaw (Poland)	3.6
Poland		6.7	4.0	4.0	2.5	Vienna (Austria)	3.6 *
Belgium	1.7	1.3		2.1	2.2 *	New York (USA)	3.3
Bulgaria					2.1	Oslo (Norway)	3.3
Iceland					2.0	Madrid (Spain)	3.2 *
Switzerland	1.8		2.0			Paris (France)	3.1 *
Austria			2.8		1.8 *	Berlin (Germany)	3.0 *
Northern Ireland	0.8		0.5	0.4	1.8	Hong Kong (SAR China)	2.9
Luxembourg					1.7 *	Istanbul (Turkey)	2.7
Netherlands	1.5	1.8	2.7	1.9	1.7 *	Dublin (Ireland)	2.6 *
Norway	0.8				1.6	Athens (Greece)	2.6 *
Hungary					1.6 *	Sydney (Australia)	2.4
France	1.8		1.9	1.3	1.6 *	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	2.4 *
Denmark				1.8	1.5 *	Reykjavik (Iceland)	2.4
Spain	2.8				1.5 *	Rome (Italy)	2.2 *
Germany	1.6				1.4 *	Copenhagen (Denmark)	2.0 *
Italy		2.3			1.3 *	Edinburgh (Scotland)	1.6
USA	1.1	1.4	0.9	0.8	1.2	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	1.5
Portugal				1.2	0.9 *	Lisbon (Portugal)	1.4 *
Sweden		1.0	0.9	1.2	0.9 *	Helsinki (Finland)	1.3 *
Scotland	1.0		1.2	1.4	0.8	Stockholm (Sweden)	1.2 *
Finland	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.5	0.7 *	Average	2.9
Canada	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.7	*Cities in developing countries*	
New Zealand		0.7			0.6	Lima (Peru)	11.4
Mexico					0.4	Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	11.3
Japan				0.1		Maputo (Mozambique)	8.2
						Buenos Aires (Argentina)	5.5
						Johannesburg (RSA)	4.5
						Sao Paulo (Brazil)	2.3
						Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	1.4
Average**	1.4	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.7	Average	6.4

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

5 Victimisation by contact crimes

In this chapter victimisation rates are presented for contact crimes. The three contact crimes in the ICVS 2005 are robbery, sexual incidents, and assaults & threats. Sexual incidents are divided into sexual assault and what victims described as offensive sexual behaviour. Assaults & threats can be separated into assaults with force and threats only. Where available, rates from previous years have been added to determine possible trends over time. Results from the main city surveys are presented separately.

5.1 Robbery

The question on robberies was formulated as follows:

> *'Over the past five years has anyone stolen something from you by using force or threatening you, or did anybody try to steal something from you by using force or threatening force?'*

The average victimisation rate for robbery is 1% at the country level and 2.4% in participating cities. Rates in cities in developing countries are notably higher (6.1%). Robbery is one of the types of crime that is much more prevalent in larger cities than in rural areas and can therefore be characterized as a typical manifestation of urban problems of crime.

Figure 15 shows that robbery rates tend to be significantly higher in main cities than in the country as a whole. The difference is most pronounced in the USA where New York's rate (2.3%) is almost four times the national rate (0.6%). Notable exceptions are Dublin, Stockholm and Athens. Table 11 shows the distribution across countries and cities.

The risk of robbery was comparatively low in almost all countries and differences between developed countries are small. At country level, risks were highest in 2004 in Mexico. Risks were lowest in Japan, Italy, Finland, Germany, Austria, and the Netherlands (0.5% or lower). Among main cities the top six places are all taken up by cities in developing countries with Buenos Aires first place with an annual victimisation rate of 10%. Rates are also high in the two participating cities of Brazil. All rates of participating countries or cities from Latin America are comparatively high (from 3% in Mexico nationwide to 10% in Buenos Aires).

Trends over time are mainly downwards, but not universally. Significant drops in robberies were observed in Spain (compared to 1988), Poland, the USA and Estonia. Rates in the England & Wales, Northern Ireland and Sweden seem to have remained stable or increased slightly.

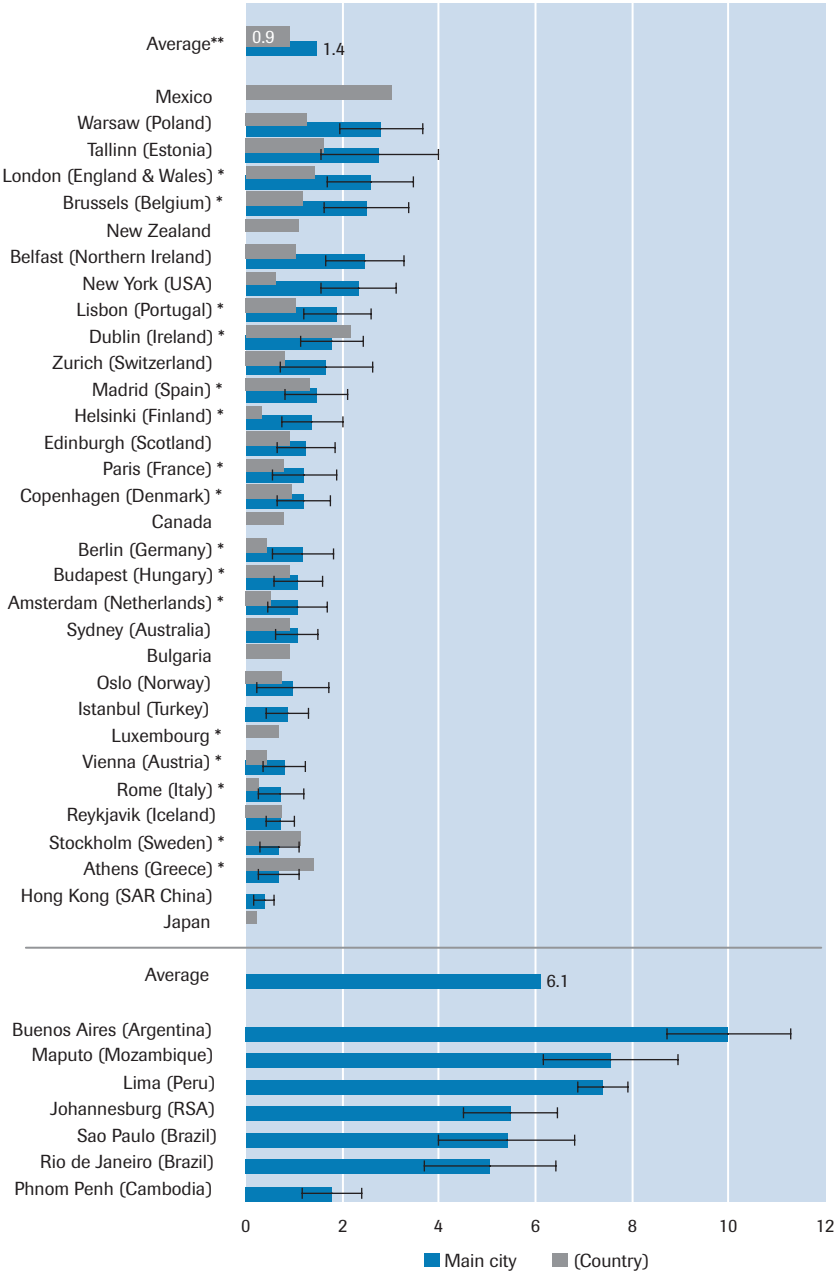
Table 11 Robbery; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003-2004		*Main cities*	2001-2004	
Mexico					3.0		Warsaw (Poland)	2.8	
Ireland					2.2	*	Tallinn (Estonia)	2.8	
Estonia		3.1	3.4	2.8	1.6		London (England)	2.6	*
England & Wales	0.7	1.1	1.4	1.2	1.4	*	Brussels (Belgium)	2.5	*
Greece					1.4	*	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	2.5	
Spain	3.1				1.3	*	New York (USA)	2.3	
Poland		1.7	1.8	1.8	1.3		Lisbon (Portugal)	1.9	*
Belgium	1.0	1.0		1.0	1.2	*	Dublin (Ireland)	1.8	*
Sweden		0.3	0.5	0.9	1.1	*	Zurich (Switzerland)	1.7	
New Zealand		0.7			1.1		Madrid (Spain)	1.5	*
Northern Ireland	0.5		0.5	0.1	1.1		Helsinki (Finland)	1.4	*
Portugal				1.1	1.0	*	Edinburgh (Scotland)	1.2	
Denmark				0.7	0.9	*	Paris (France)	1.2	*
Australia	0.9	1.3		1.2	0.9		Copenhagen (Denmark)	1.2	*
Scotland	0.5	.	0.8	0.7	0.9		Berlin (Germany)	1.2	*
Bulgaria					0.9		Budapest (Hungary)	1.1	*
Hungary					0.9	*	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	1.1	*
Switzerland	0.5		0.9	0.7	0.8		Sydney (Australia)	1.1	
Canada	1.1	1.2	1.2	0.9	0.8		Oslo (Norway)	1.0	
France	0.4		1.0	1.1	0.8	*	Istanbul (Turkey)	0.9	
Iceland					0.8		Vienna (Austria)	0.8	*
Norway	0.5				0.8		Rome (Italy)	0.7	*
Luxembourg					0.7	*	Reykjavik (Iceland)	0.7	
USA	1.9	1.5	1.3	0.6	0.6		Stockholm (Sweden)	0.7	*
Netherlands	0.8	1.0	0.6	0.8	0.5	*	Athens (Greece)	0.7	*
Austria			0.2	.	0.4	*	Hong Kong (SAR China)	0.4	
Germany	0.8				0.4	*	Average	1.4	
Finland	0.7	1.0	0.5	0.6	0.3	*	*Cities in developing countries*		
Italy		1.3			0.3	*	Buenos Aires (Argentina)	10.0	
Japan				0.1	0.2		Maputo (Mozambique)	7.6	
							Lima (Peru)	7.4	
							Johannesburg (RSA)	5.5	
							Sao Paulo (Brazil)	5.4	
							Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	5.1	
							Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	1.8	
Average**	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.0		Average	6.1	

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

Figure 15 **Robbery; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities. 2001-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries and cities taking part. Since there is not for every country a main city and for some countries only a main city, comparing this total average should be done with caution. There are 23 countries with both national and main city data.

Details of robbery
Many robberies are committed by groups of perpetrators. About six in ten victims said that more than one offender was involved – similar to previous sweeps. Something was actually stolen in about half of the cases.

On average, a weapon was present in 28% of the robberies committed in the 30 countries over a period of five years. In half these cases this was a knife (14% of all robberies) and in one in six it involved a gun (5.5% of all robberies). Although numbers are small, there appears to be significant variation in the extent to which weapons were present across countries. The range goes from 0% in Japan to 63% in Mexico. In Mexico 30% of all robberies were committed with a gun.

Of the robberies committed in main cities, 39% involved a weapon (one in two a knife and one in four a gun). Of all robberies in main cities on average 19% involved a knife and 12% a gun. In several cities more than half of all robberies involved a weapon: Rio, Sao Paulo, Phnom Penh, Lima, Rome, Madrid, Istanbul and New York and Johannesburg.

Cities with the highest proportions of robberies at gun point are Phnom Penh (66%), Rio (56%), Sao Paulo (51%), Johannesburg (47%) and New York (27%). In these cities, the five year prevalence rate for gun robberies is above 1% (Phnom Penh: 4.8%; Rio: 9.7%; Sao Paulo: 9.0%; Johannesburg: 9.4%; New York: 1.6%).

For details, see appendix 9.4, table 22.

5.2 Sexual offences

The question[1] put to respondents was:

> *'First, a rather personal question. People sometimes grab, touch or assault others for sexual reasons in a really offensive way. This can happen either at home, or elsewhere, for instance in a pub, the street, at school, on public transport, in cinemas, on the beach, or at one's workplace. Over the past five years, has anyone done this to you? Please take your time to think about this.'*

In the 2004/05 sweep of the ICVS / EU ICS the question on sexual offences was put to both female and male respondents. Positive answers from male respondents were much lower than from women. On average 0.5% of male respondents recorded a sexual incident. There was little variation but

1 Sexual offences were not asked in the Australian survey, see Challice & Johnson (2005).

somewhat higher percentages were recorded in Denmark (1.9%) and the Netherlands (1.4%). On average 1.7% of women reported victimisation. To maintain comparability with results of previous sweeps the rates presented here are calculated for women only. Details of sexual victimisations of men are given in appendix 9.1, tables 1-8.

Measuring sexual incidents is extremely difficult in victimisation surveys, since perceptions as to what is unacceptable sexual behaviour may differ across countries. Contrary to popular belief, there is no indication that asking for victimisation by sexual offences over the phone causes problems, provided skilled interviewers are used for the fieldwork. Previous multivariate analyses have, however, shown that gender equality is inversely related to victimisation by sexual offences (Kangaspunta, 2000). The finding that women in some societies with greater gender equality such as Sweden report more such victimisations may suggest that women in countries where gender equality is more advanced are more inclined to report sexual incidents, especially minor ones to interviewers. Such effect would seriously deflate national rates of developing countries and compromise any attempt at global comparisons.

In many countries dedicated surveys, using more extensive questionnaires, have been conducted on experiences of women with sexual abuse and other forms of violence by men (United Nations, 2006). Secondary analyses of these surveys have confirmed that intimate partner violence is most prevalent in developing countries, a finding seemingly at odds with ICVS results on sexual offences. The ICVS measures on sexual violence, then, need to be interpreted with more than usual caution. An additional reason to exercise great caution is the recurrent finding that rates of sexual offences of countries are less stable over the years than those of other types of crime. This finding may indicate that responses to the question on sexual incidents are susceptible to events or media campaigns that may have temporarily raised awareness about this issue.

Respondents reporting victimisation by sexual offences were asked for details about what happened. Sexual incidents can be broken down into sexual assaults and incidents of a less serious nature. Sexual assaults (i.e., incidents described as rape, attempted rape or indecent assaults) were less common than sexual behaviour that was deemed to be 'just offensive'. It seems plausible that cultural factors play a lesser role in reporting on the most serious types of sexual incidents. In order to reduce biases in the findings resulting from differential definitions and perceptions, we will focus our presentation on sexual assaults only. It should be borne in mind that risks are based on smaller numbers of respondents (females only) and are relatively low for sexual assaults. Firm conclusions about vulnerability of countries or cities are therefore hard to draw. Triangulation of

ICVS findings with results of dedicated, standardised surveys of violence against women as promoted by inter alia HEUNI, are called for (Nevala, forthcoming 2007). Table 12 shows the results on sexual assaults against women.

Table 12 Sexual assault against women; one-year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003-2004		*Main cities*	2001-2004	
USA	1.4	0.6	1.2	0.4	1.4		New York (USA)	1.5	
Iceland					1.4		Copenhagen (Denmark)	1.4	*
Sweden		0.5	1.5	1.1	1.3		Helsinki (Finland)	1.4	*
Northern Ireland	0.3		0.5	0.1	1.2	*	Reykjavik (Iceland)	1.3	
Norway	0.3				0.9		Istanbul (Turkey)	1.1	
England & Wales	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.9	0.9	*	London (England)	0.9	*
Switzerland	0.6		1.2	0.6	0.9		Zurich (Switzerland)	0.9	
Japan				0.1	0.8		Oslo (Norway)	0.8	
Ireland					0.8	*	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	0.8	
Canada	1.2	1.6	0.9	0.8	0.8		Hong Kong (SAR China)	0.7	
New Zealand		1.3			0.7		Edinburgh (Scotland)	0.6	
Scotland	0.6		0.2	0.3	0.6		Rome (Italy)	0.6	*
Netherlands	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.6	*	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	0.5	*
Poland		1.5	0.6	0.2	0.5		Berlin (Germany)	0.4	*
Denmark				0.4	0.5	*	Stockholm (Sweden)	0.3	*
Luxembourg					0.4	*	Athens (Greece)	0.3	*
Greece					0.4	*	Tallinn (Estonia)	0.3	
Austria			1.2		0.4	*	Paris (France)	0.2	*
Germany	1.1				0.4	*	Madrid (Spain)	0.1	*
Finland	0.3	1.5	1.0	1.1	0.4	*	Dublin (Ireland)	0.1	*
Belgium	0.5	0.9		0.3	0.4	*	Budapest (Hungary)	0.1	*
Italy		0.6			0.3	*	Brussels (Belgium)	0.1	*
Estonia		1.4	1.0	1.9	0.3		Vienna (Austria)	0.1	*
France	0.4		0.4	0.7	0.3	*	Lisbon (Portugal)	0.1	*
Portugal				0.2	0.2	*	Average	0.6	
Spain	0.6				0.1	*	*Cities in developing countries*		
Bulgaria					0.1		Maputo (Mozambique)	1.8	
Hungary					0.0	*	Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	1.3	
Mexico					0.0		Lima (Peru)	1.3	
							Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	1.2	
							Sao Paulo (Brazil)	1.1	
							Johannesburg (RSA)	1.0	
							Buenos Aires (Argentina)	0.8	
Average**	0.6	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.6		Average	1.2	

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

For all countries combined, only 0.6 % reported sexual assaults. About one in a hundred women in the USA, Iceland, Sweden, Northern Ireland, Australia, Norway, England & Wales and Switzerland reported sexual assaults in the context of a general survey on crime. Differences between these countries are statistically negligible.

Rates of sexual assault are equally rare in main cities (0.7% on average, 0.6% in cities in developed countries and 1.2% in cities in developing countries). Cities with rates of 1% or higher are mainly found in developing countries as well as New York, Copenhagen and Helsinki. Maputo stands out with a rate of 1.8%.

Details of sexual offences
Looking at what women said about the 'last incident' that had occurred, and taking all 30 countries together, offenders were known to the victim in about half of the incidents described as both offensive behaviour and sexual assault. In over a third they were known by name and in about a tenth by sight only.
In cases where the perpetrator was known by name, it was an ex-partner (spouse or boyfriend) in 11%, colleague or boss in 17%, current partner in 8% and close friend in 16% of the cases. These results are similar to those in the previous sweeps.
Most sexual incidents involved only one offender (78%). In 8% of the cases three or more offenders were involved. Weapons were only rarely involved in sexual offences (8%). A gun was on average present in 1.1% of all assaults and a knife in 0.5%. The USA stands out with a presence of a gun in 4.5% of the cases.

Weapons are not very often used in sexual offences (in 3% of cases in countries and in 7.3% in main cities). If a weapon was used, it was more often a knife than a gun. Cities that stand out with significantly higher proportions sexual offences with the use of weapons are Johannesburg (41%), and Maputo (26%). The five year prevalence rate for a gun related sexual attack is 1.6% in Johannesburg and 0.6% in Maputo.

For details, see appendix 9.4, table 22.

5.3 Assaults & threats

The question asked of respondents to identify assaults & threats follows the one on sexual incidents/offences and was:

> *'Apart from the incidents just covered, have you over the past five years been personally attacked or threatened by someone in a way that really frightened you, either at home or elsewhere, such as in a pub, in the street, at school, on public transport, on the beach, or at your workplace?'*

Table 13 provides an overview of the key findings.

Overall, 3.1% of the respondents at the country level indicated that they had been a victim of an assault with force or a threat of force. There were higher than average rates in Northern Ireland, Iceland, England & Wales, Ireland, the Netherlands, New Zealand and the USA (4% and above). Levels were lowest in Italy, Portugal, Hungary, and Spain (below 2%). The mean city rate in developed countries was very similar (3.7%). Rates in developing countries tend to be higher (mean 6.1%).

As with sexual incidents, differences in definitional thresholds cannot be ruled out in explaining the pattern of results. However, this should not be overstated. When asked to assess the seriousness of what had happened, there is fair consistency across countries in how seriously incidents are viewed (Van Kesteren, Mayhew, Nieuwbeerta, 2000).

Respondents were asked whether during the incident force was actually used. For the sub-set of incidents which are described as amounting to assaults with force, the mean rate was 0.9%. Figure 16 shows national rates for threats and assaults combined and assaults only.

Details of assaults & threats
Looking at what was said about the 'last incident', and again taking all 30 countries together, offenders were known to the victim in about half the incidents of both assaults and threats. Men, though, were less likely to know the offender(s) than women. The latter finding indicates that violence against women is of a different nature. One offender is involved in 60% of violent crimes against women, compared to 40% in cases of violence against men.
On average a weapon was present in 17% of cases of assault or threat in countries (based on cases over the last five years). Of all incidents 6.4% involved a knife and 2.4% a gun. Mexico, the USA and Northern Ireland stand out with the highest percentages gun-related attacks (16%, 6% and 6% respectively).

In the main cities 22.6% of all attacks involved a weapon; in 9.4% a knife was involved and in 5% a gun. Cities with the highest percentages gun attacks are Rio (39%), Sao Paulo (35%), Phnom Penh (13%), Johannesburg (13%), Istanbul (10%), New York (10%), Brussels (10%), Maputo (7%), and Belfast (6%). In these cities the five year prevalence rates for gun attacks was 1% or higher (Rio: 2.7%; Sao Paulo: 2.5%; Johannesburg: 2.2%; Maputo: 1.6%; New York: 1.3%; Belfast: 1.2%, Brussel: 1%).

For details, see appendix 9.4, table 22.

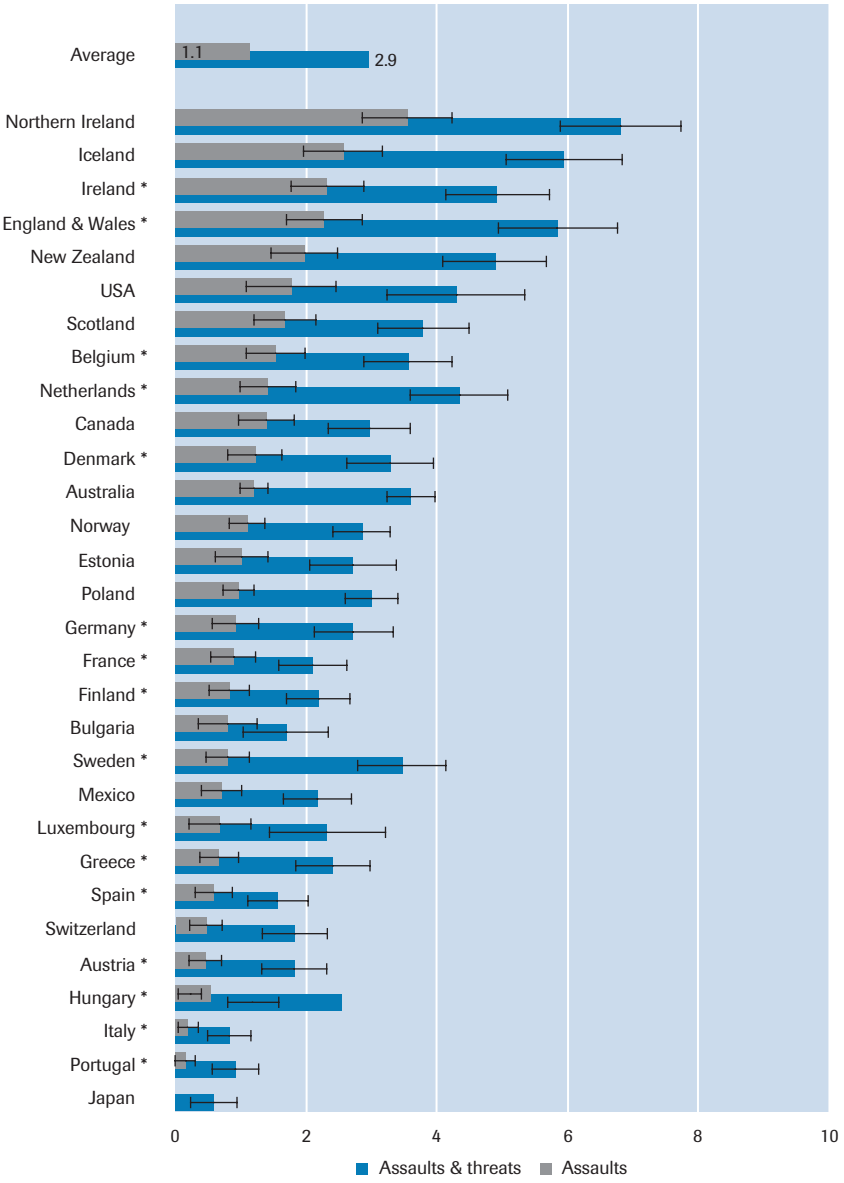
Table 13 Assaults & threats; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities and results from earlier surveys. 1989–2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003-2004	*Main cities*	2001-2004
Northern Ireland	1.8		1.7	3.0	6.8	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	9.2
Iceland					5.9	London (England)	8.6 *
England & Wales	1.9	3.8	5.9	6.1	5.8 *	Reykjavik (Iceland)	7.0
Ireland					4.9 *	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	5.9 *
New Zealand		5.7			4.9	New York (USA)	5.1
Netherlands	3.3	4.0	4.0	3.4	4.3 *	Edinburgh (Scotland)	4.6
USA	5.4	4.7	5.7	3.4	4.3	Helsinki (Finland)	4.5 *
Australia	5.2	4.7		6.4	3.8	Berlin (Germany)	4.1 *
Scotland	1.8	.	4.2	6.1	3.8	Oslo (Norway)	4.1
Belgium	2.1	1.8	.	3.2	3.6 *	Dublin (Ireland)	3.9 *
Sweden		2.7	4.5	3.8	3.5 *	Tallinn (Estonia)	3.7
Denmark				3.6	3.3 *	Copenhagen (Denmark)	3.6 *
Poland		4.2	3.7	2.8	3.0	Zurich (Switzerland)	3.5
Canada	3.9	4.8	4.0	5.3	3.0	Stockholm (Sweden)	3.2 *
Norway	3.0				2.9	Paris (France)	3.1 *
Germany	3.1				2.7 *	Madrid (Spain)	2.9 *
Estonia		5.0	5.7	6.3	2.7	Sydney (Australia)	2.8
Switzerland	1.2		3.1	2.4	2.5	Brussels (Belgium)	2.6 *
Greece					2.4 *	Vienna (Austria)	2.5 *
Luxembourg					2.3 *	Athens (Greece)	2.4 *
Finland	2.9	4.4	4.1	4.2	2.2 *	Budapest (Hungary)	1.6 *
Mexico					2.2	Lisbon (Portugal)	1.3 *
France	2.0		3.9	4.2	2.1 *	Rome (Italy)	1.2 *
Austria			2.1		1.8 *	Hong Kong (SAR China)	1.2
Bulgaria					1.7	Istanbul (Turkey)	0.6
Spain	3.1				1.6 *	Average	3.7
Hungary					1.2 *	*Cities in developing countries*	
Portugal				0.9	0.9 *	Johannesburg (RSA)	11.2
Italy		0.8			0.8 *	Lima (Peru)	11.0
Japan				0.4	0.6	Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	6.8
						Maputo (Mozambique)	6.2
						Buenos Aires (Argentina)	3.2
						Sao Paulo (Brazil)	2.6
						Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	1.5
Average**	2.9	3.9	4.0	3.8	3.1	Average	6.1

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

Figure 16 **Assaults & threats and assaults only; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities. 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

On average a weapon was present in 17% of cases of assault or threat in countries (based on cases over the last five years). Of all incidents 6.4% involved a knife and 2.4% a gun. Mexico, the USA and Northern Ireland stand out with the highest percentages gun-related attacks (16%, 6% and 6% respectively).

In the main cities 22.6% of all attacks involved a weapon; in 9.4% a knife was involved and in 5% a gun. Cities with the highest percentages gun attacks are Rio de Janeiro (39%), Sao Paulo (35%), Phnom Penh (13%), Johannesburg (13%), Istanbul (10%), New York (10%), Brussels (10%), Maputo (7%), and Belfast (6%). In these cities the five year prevalence rates for gun attacks was 1% or higher (Rio de Janeiro: 2.7%; Sao Paulo: 2.5%; Johannesburg: 2.2%; Maputo; 1.6%; New York: 1.3%; Belfast: 1.2%, Brussel: 1.0%).

Respondents were asked whether they or someone else in their household owned a firearm and of what type. Ownership rates of hand guns varied between 0% in Japan, 6% in Lima, 6.8% in Argentina to 17.6% in the USA. The average gun ownership rate of the Europe is 3.2%. The comparatively more serious nature of assaults and threats in the USA and some cities in developing countries seem related to greater availability of handguns. Details on ownership of guns can be found in appendix 9.3, table 18.

6 Victimisation by non-conventional crimes

In this chapter results are presented of the ICVS 2005 concerning victimisation by consumer fraud, corruption and hate crimes. Since these questions were added to the questionnaire at a later stage, only limited historical data are available. Hate crimes were asked for the first time in 2003/04 and only in the 18 countries that participated in the EU ICS. Also presented in this chapter is information on experiences with drug-related problems in the neighbourhood from the ICVS and EU ICS, combined with historical data about the same item taken from recent Eurobarometer surveys.

6.1 Consumer fraud

People were asked whether someone – when selling something to them, or delivering a service – cheated them in terms of quantity or quality of the goods or services during the past year (2004). Although the question does not exclude serious incidents of fraud, most of the incidents reported probably amount to cheating.

On average, 11% of respondents in the national samples said in 2005 they experienced some type of consumer fraud over the past 12 months. Rates in main cities are on average very similar (12.4%) but rates in cities in developing countries are markedly higher (24.4%). Most countries at the top have economies that have been in transition from socialist to market economies (Estonia, Bulgaria, Hungary, and Poland). Levels of fraud were lowest in Japan, Finland, Italy, Scotland, and the Netherlands. At city level rates are highest in Phnom Pen and Maputo. While for almost all other crime types Hong Kong is placed considerably below average, consumer fraud is the only type of crime that is comparatively common in Hong Kong. The victimisation rate for consumer fraud is comparatively modest in Johannesburg (10%). For countries participating in previous sweeps (the ICVS asked about consumer fraud for the first time in the 1992 sweep), 2004 results were largely similar. Few countries show any consistent trends.

Analyses at the global level have shown a relationship between the size of the informal sector of national economies and the level of fraud (Van Dijk, 2007). Where the informal sector is relatively large, regulatory arrangements to protect consumers are likely to be less effective. Deficiencies in this sphere may explain the high levels of consumer fraud in countries with new market economies in Eastern Central Europe as well as in developing countries in Asia (Cambodia), Latin America (Argentina and Peru) and Africa(Mozambique). Few incidents of consumer fraud were reported to the police (10%), but other agencies were notified about more incidents.

Types of fraud: internet-based fraud and credit card fraud
Victims of consumer fraud were asked under which circumstances the incident had taken place. At country level 45% of victims said the fraud had taken place in a shop. 11% mentioned either building or construction work or a garage. 9% mentioned it happened while shopping at the Internet. This implies that on average one percent of the national respondents have been victimised by a fraud with the use of Internet. According to the Human Development Report 2006, between 50 and 70% of the population in the industrialised countries have access to the Internet. This means that in these countries around 2% of all Internet users are victim of Internet-based fraud annually. Table 15 shows details.

Victimisation by Internet-based fraud is most common the USA, Poland, Germany, Bulgaria and the United Kingdom. Among the main cities, Lima and London stand out with very high rates of victimisation.

Countries or cities with high rates of victimisation by Internet-based frauds are a mixed group in terms of Internet use. It comprises both countries where Internet is most widely used and countries whose fewer people are connected. Locations with low victimisation rates also appear to be heterogeneous in terms of Internet use. For example use of Internet is very common in Iceland and Finland, countries where Internet-based fraud is rare. On the face of it, there is no strong relationship between use of Internet by national populations and prevalence of Internet-based fraud. This lack of an obvious relationship between technical opportunities and actual victimisation merits further analysis and interpretation.

Among inhabitants of main cities the percentages of victims are higher. 1.5% of main city inhabitants experienced such fraud. Among city inhabitants Internet-based frauds seem set to reach prevalence levels similar to those of common crimes like car theft or pickpocketing in the years to come.

In a separate question respondents were also asked whether the case of consumer fraud had been a credit card fraud. Nationally 7% of the victims of fraud said it was. In main cities 10% of fraud victims said it was credit card fraud. This implies victimisation rates for credit card fraud of 0.9% nationwide and 1.5% in main cities respectively. New York and London show the highest rates of victimisation by credit card fraud (4.3% and 7.5% respectively). Over a quarter of all internet-based fraud cases had also involved credit cards (28%). Details are given in table 16[1] [2].

1 The 2003 US National Crime Victim Survey investigated credit card based fraud as a subcategory of identity theft (Baum, 2003). The national victimisation rate of identity theft involving credit cards was 2.4% according to the NCVS.
2 The Australian ICVS used not comparable items; twelve percent of those who bought something on the internet using a creditcard experienced some sort of problem, this is 5% of the population (Johnson and Krone (2007)).

Table 14 Consumer fraud; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ECS*

Countries	1991	1995	1999	2003-2004	*Main cities*	2001-2004
Estonia	32.5	30.1	38.1	25.7	Budapest (Hungary)	25.8 *
Greece				24.7 *	Tallinn (Estonia)	24.5
Bulgaria				22.7	Warsaw (Poland)	12.0
Hungary				19.7 *	Athens (Greece)	24.1 *
Poland	11.6	14.2	12.8	16.1	Hong Kong (SAR China)	21.7
Denmark			11.5	15.7 *	Copenhagen (Denmark)	15.7 *
Sweden	3.7	7.7	9.4	13.7 *	Paris (France)	14.0 *
Iceland				12.9	Stockholm (Sweden)	13.7 *
USA		9.6	11.4	12.5	Reykjavik (Iceland)	13.6
Germany				11.7 *	London (England)	12.9 *
Spain				10.8 *	New York (USA)	12.9
France		9.8	4.4	10.2 *	Madrid (Spain)	11.6 *
Luxembourg				9.8 *	Istanbul (Turkey)	11.5
Norway				9.7	Berlin (Germany)	11.0 *
Australia	8.4		8.8	.	Brussels (Belgium)	10.0 *
Portugal			7.0	8.2 *	Oslo (Norway)	9.1
Austria		10.5		8.1 *	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	8.9
Ireland				8.0 *	Dublin (Ireland)	8.2 *
Belgium	8.6		6.4	8.0 *	Vienna (Austria)	7.9 *
Northern Ireland		4.4	3.8	7.8	Rome (Italy)	7.8 *
New Zealand	7.4			7.7	Lisbon (Portugal)	7.7 *
England & Wales	6.7	5.4	6.0	7.7 *	Zurich (Switzerland)	7.7
Canada	8.1	6.9	7.5	7.4	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	7.6 *
Switzerland		9.9		7.3	Edinburgh (Scotland)	5.8
Mexico				7.2	Helsinki (Finland)	5.0 *
Netherlands	4.9	5.9	4.4	7.0 *	Average	12.4
Scotland		6.4	4.9	6.4	*Cities in developing countries*	
Italy	10.6			5.9 *	Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	40.0
Finland		14.5	10.2	5.2 *	Maputo (Mozambique)	*35.8*
Japan			2.3	1.9	Buenos Aires (Argentina)	20.4
					Lima (Peru)	15.8
					Johannesburg (RSA)	10.3
Average**	10.2	10.4	9.3	11.0	Average	24.4

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

Table 15 Types of consumer fraud; one year prevalence rates for fraud while buying something on the internet and fraud involving a creditcard in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities. 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	Fraud with shopping on the internet	Creditcard fraud
USA	3.3	4.0
Poland	3.0	
Germany	2.7	
Bulgaria	2.6	
England & Wales*	2.2	1.7
Norway	1.5	
Denmark*	1.4	0.3
New Zealand	1.3	
Sweden*	1.2	0.3
Northern Ireland	1.2	1.3
Austria*	1.1	0.4
Scotland	1.0	1.4
Spain*	0.7	0.9
Ireland*	0.7	1.3
Canada	0.7	
Estonia	0.6	
Portugal*	0.5	0.4
Luxembourg*	0.5	0.3
Iceland	0.4	
France*	0.4	0.3
Belgium*	0.4	0.4
Netherlands*	0.3	0.4
Mexico	0.2	0.6
Greece*	0.1	1.4
Finland*	0.1	0.0
Italy	0.0	0.1
Average	1.1	0.9

Main cities	Fraud with shopping on the internet	Creditcard fraud
Berlin (Germany)*	3.8	
New York (USA)	3.7	4.3
London (England)*	3.2	7.5
Paris (France)*	2.7	2.4
Copenhagen (Denmark)*	1.5	0.1
Edinburgh (Scotland)	1.0	1.9
Madrid (Spain)*	1.0	1.3
Vienna (Austria)*	0.9	0.4
Hong Kong (SAR China)	0.9	
Amsterdam (Netherlands)*	0.9	0.3
Dublin (Ireland)*	0.7	1.6
Stockholm (Sweden)*	0.7	0.2
Brussels (Belgium)*	0.6	1.1
Tallinn (Estonia)	0.6	
Belfast (Northern Ireland)	0.5	1.4
Athens (Greece)*	0.4	1.4
Oslo (Norway)	0.4	
Reykjavik (Iceland)	0.3	
Lisbon (Portugal)*	0.2	0.0
Helsinki (Finland)*	0.0	0.1
Budapest (Hungary)*	0.0	0.1
Rome (Italy)*	0.0	
Average	1.1	1.5
Cities in developing countries		
Lima (Peru)	10.7	
Johannesburg (RSA)	0.3	
Average	5.5	

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

6.2 Corruption

From the third sweep onwards, respondents were asked:

> *'In some countries, there is a problem of corruption among government or public officials. During 2004, did any government official, for instance a customs officer, a police officer, a judge or inspector in your country ask you, or expected you to pay a bribe for his or her services?'*

Table 17 and figure 17 show the results of the 2005 surveys. On average 2% of the 30 countries reported any incident, with most countries showing rates below 0.5%. The mean victimisation rate of main cities in developed countries was even lower (1.8%). The mean victimisation rate of people living in main cities in developing countries was very much higher (18.9%).

Greece and Mexico stood out with percentages as high as of 13.5 and 13.3. As had been the case in the previous sweeps, corruption was also high in Bulgaria, Poland, Hungary and Estonia (Zvekic, 1998). One in twenty has been confronted with a corrupt official on average in these four countries. Rates in Denmark, France and Portugal are relatively low but yet higher than in many other European countries. Results of previous sweeps also showed relatively high rates in France and Portugal. At the city level, rates were very high in Maputo (30.5%) and Phnom Penh (29.0%). Rates significantly above the mean were also found in Johannesburg (15.5%), Athens (13.8%), Lima (13.7%), Istanbul (7.1%) and Budapest (6.9%).

Government officials and police officers were cited as bribe-takers most often.

The rates of actual experiences with officials asking or expecting bribes were compared with the scores on the Corruption Perception Index of Transparency International, a composite index of experts' perceptions of general levels of corruption (Transparency International, 2005). The two indicators of corruption were strongly related to each other ($r=-.72$, $n=31$, $p<0.01$). Note that the TI scores show a high value for countries with low corruption rates, hence the negative correlation. This finding supports claims by TI that their perception-based indicator can also be used as proxy indicator of actual levels of bribery. Figure 18 shows the results.

The relatively high positions on the corruption prevalence rates of Greece, Poland, Estonia and Hungary are fully confirmed by scores on the corruption perception index maintained by Transparency International. Italy, though, shows higher scores on the CPI than it does on the ICVS-based victimisation rate. This discrepancy may indicate that in Italy high level corruption is more prevalent than street level corruption.

ICVS-type victimisation questions used in surveys carried out in Bulgaria indicated a steady decline of corrupt practices since 1999 while perception-based indicators fluctuated up and downwards in connection to relevant media events (Coalition 2000, 2005). Since the ICVS -based measure refers to personal experiences with a well-defined category of corruption – bribe seeking by public officials – results are likely to be more robust than indicators based on perceptions such as the CPI index of TI. As was the case in Bulgaria, perception-based indicators may sometimes be led by media reports. ICVS-based measures, however, have the drawback of

focussing on street level bribe-taking only. The ICVS measures do not capture less visible but potentially more damaging forms of high level or grand corruption. Low prevalence rates on the ICVS based measure of petty corruption should not be seen as proof that more serious forms of corruption are equally rare.

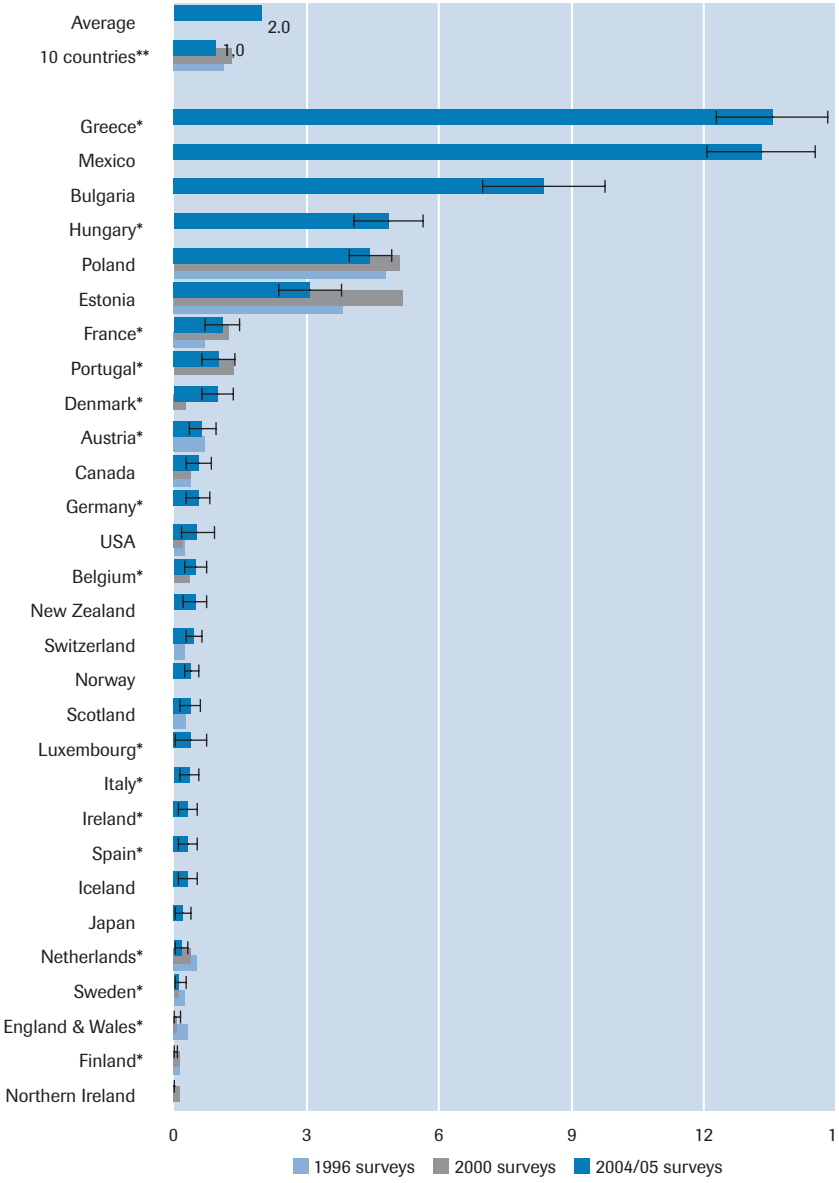
Table 16 Corruption, experiences with bribe-seeking by public officials; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities and results from earlier surveys. 1996-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1995	1999	2003-2004	*Main cities*	2001-2004
Greece			13.5 *	Athens (Greece)	13.8 *
Mexico			13.3	Istanbul (Turkey)	7.1
Bulgaria			8.4	Warsaw (Poland)	6.2
Hungary			4.9	Budapest (Hungary)	6.9 *
Poland	4.8	5.1	4.4 *	Tallinn (Estonia)	3.7
Estonia	3.8	5.2	3.1	Brussels (Belgium)	1.2 *
France	0.7	1.3	1.1	Zurich (Switzerland)	1.2
Portugal		1.4	1.0 *	Lisbon (Portugal)	1.1 *
Denmark		0.3	1.0 *	Rome (Italy)	0.9 *
Austria	0.7		0.6 *	Paris (France)	0.8 *
Canada	0.4	0.4	0.6 *	London (England)	0.7 *
Germany			0.6	Vienna (Austria)	0.7 *
USA	0.3	0.2	0.5 *	Edinburgh (Scotland)	0.5
Belgium		0.3	0.5	Berlin (Germany)	0.5 *
New Zealand			0.5 *	Stockholm (Sweden)	0.5 *
Switzerland	0.2		0.5	Copenhagen (Denmark)	0.4 *
Norway			0.4	Reykjavik (Iceland)	0.4
Scotland	0.3	0.0	0.4	Madrid (Spain)	0.4 *
Luxembourg			0.4 *	New York (USA)	0.4
Italy			0.4 *	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	0.2 *
Australia		0.3		Oslo (Norway)	0.2
Ireland			0.3 *	Helsinki (Finland)	0.1 *
Spain			0.3 *	Dublin (Ireland)	0.1 *
Iceland			0.3	Hong Kong (SAR China)	0.0
Japan		0.0	0.2	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	0.0
Netherlands	0.5	0.4	0.2	Average	1.9
Sweden	0.2	0.1	0.1 *	*Cities in developing countries*	
England & Wales	0.3	0.1	0.0 *	Maputo (Mozambique)	30.5
Finland	0.1	0.2	0.0 *	*Phnom Penh (Cambodia)*	29.0
Northern Ireland	0.0	0.2	0.0	Johannesburg (RSA)	15.5
				Lima (Peru)	13.7
				Buenos Aires (Argentina)	5.8
Average**	0.9	1.0	2.0	Average	18.9

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

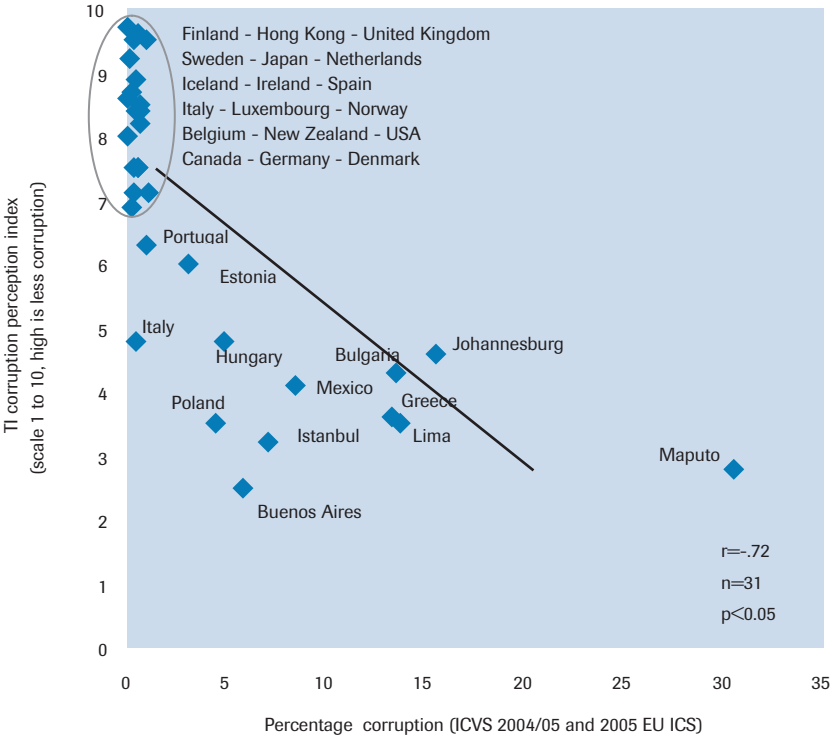
** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

Figure 17 **Corruption, experiences with bribe-seeking by public officials; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities. 1996-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

Figure 18 **Plot of experiences with bribe-seeking by public officials (percentage prevalence rates in 2003/04) and ratings on the TI Corruption Perception Index. 2004-2005 ICVS, 2005 EU ICS and Transparency International 2004**



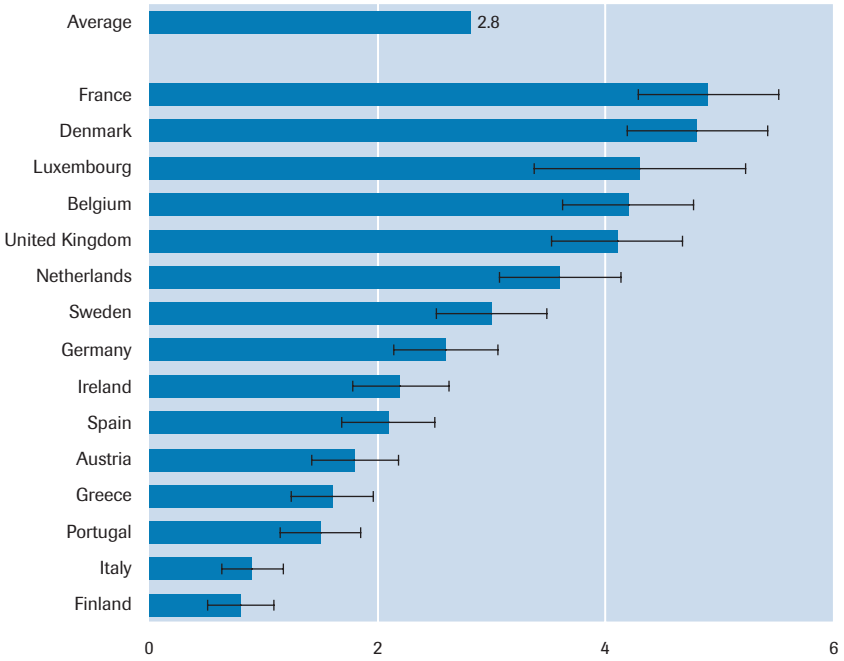
* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

6.3 Hate crimes in the European Union

In several European countries, concern has been raised about the extent and possible increase of ideologically motivated personal violence ('hate crimes'). In a recent report on Racist Violence in fifteen EU Member States, the Vienna-based European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia (now EU Agency for Fundamental Rights) concluded that no data are available that can reliably be used to assess the extent of these problems in the Member States (EUMC, 2005). In several countries no official data on 'hate crimes' are collected at all. At the request of the EUMC, Gallup Europe has pilot tested dedicated surveys on hate crimes in some member states of the EU using an adjusted version of the EU ICS.

In the EU ICS 2005 respondents of the fifteen old EU Member States were asked whether they, or their immediate families, had in 2004 fallen victim to any crime that they believed had been motivated by their nationality, race or colour, religious belief or sexual orientation. Incidents cited included those already mentioned during the interview on the other types of crime. The results allow a first rough assessment in comparative perspective of the extent of such 'hate crimes' in the EU as perceived by respondents/victims themselves. Figure 19 gives the percentages victims per country.

Figure 19 **Perceived hate crime; one year prevalence rates in 2003/04 (percentages) in 15 EU member states. 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

On average, 3% of the European inhabitants have experienced hate crimes against themselves or their immediate families. The extent of hate crime per country shows great variation. Percentages of such victims are highest in France, Denmark, the United Kingdom and the Benelux countries. Lowest rates are found in Finland, Italy, Portugal, Greece and Austria. The level of 'hate crimes' is about average in Germany and Sweden.

Although the definition of 'hate crimes' is not limited to crimes motivated by ethnic hatred, its prevalence in countries might be related to the presence of immigrant communities. Respondents were asked whether they consider themselves, their parents or someone else in their family as immigrants. In the 15 countries together, 7% of respondents define themselves as immigrants, 5% as children of immigrants and 3% as having family members who immigrated. In total 15% of the respondents qualified for the broadly defined status of immigrant. We subsequently looked at victimisation by 'hate crimes' among immigrants. The results of our analysis confirm that victimisation by hate crimes are strongly related to immigrant status. Of those indicating to be immigrants, 10% report to have fallen victim to 'hate crimes'. The victimisation rate among non-immigrants is 2%.

The analysis of victimisation rates of those indicating a religious affiliation showed insignificant results. Respondents that practice a religion showed similar victimisation rates for 'hate crimes' as those who do not. Within the immigrant communities, however, religion was positively related to victimisation. Of the people with an immigrant status who are religious, 12% had been victimised, compared to 9% of those who are not. This result indicates that religious immigrants, including Muslims, perceive to be victimised by 'hate crimes' more often than other immigrants.

Countries with proportionally larger immigrant communities tend to show higher rates of 'hate crimes' ($r=0.46$, $n=15$, $p>0.05$). Prevalence rates of victimisation of immigrants by hate crimes per country are based on very small numbers and large confidence intervals make comparisons less meaningful. On the face of it, immigrants in Belgium, Greece, Spain and Denmark perceive to be victimised by hate crimes most often. Immigrants in Finland, Portugal and Italy reported such crimes least often. The results of the ongoing surveys commissioned by the EU Fundamental Rights Agency can act as a check on these tentative findings.

A further preliminary analysis was made of rates of victimisation of immigrants by any of the ten types of common crimes included in the standard ICVS questionnaire. 19% of the immigrants had been victimised by any crime once or more in 2004. Among religious immigrants this was 20%. The victimisation rate of non-immigrants is significantly lower, fifteen percent, regardless of religious status. This result suggests that immigrant status enhances the risk of being criminally victimised by any of the ten crimes, independent of other known risk factors such as young age and urban residence. The phenomenon of crimes motivated by racism seems a factor propelling levels of common crime, especially threats & assaults in some European countries.

This information on hate crime is available on countries participating in the EU ICS only. It is difficult to compare these findings with results of other victimisation surveys because of different methodologies used. The National Crime Victims Survey 2000 to 2003 of the USA asked respondents reporting personal victimisations whether they believed the crime was motivated by hate. The results are significantly lower than those found in Europe: around 0.1% of the respondent were victimised by a hate crime once or more (Wolf Harlow, 2005). This is 1/30th of the European average. Also striking is that the victimisation rates varied very little by race and ethnicity whereas in Europe immigrants are, as just mentioned, much more often victimised than non-immigrants.

In future international victim surveys inclusion of follow-up questions to victims on a possible hateful motivation of the offender along the lines of the NCVS seems an option worth considering. The Australian component of the ICVS also asked for a possible 'hate' motivation but as a follow-up of assaults and threat only. For results of the Australian survey on this item see Johnson (2005b).

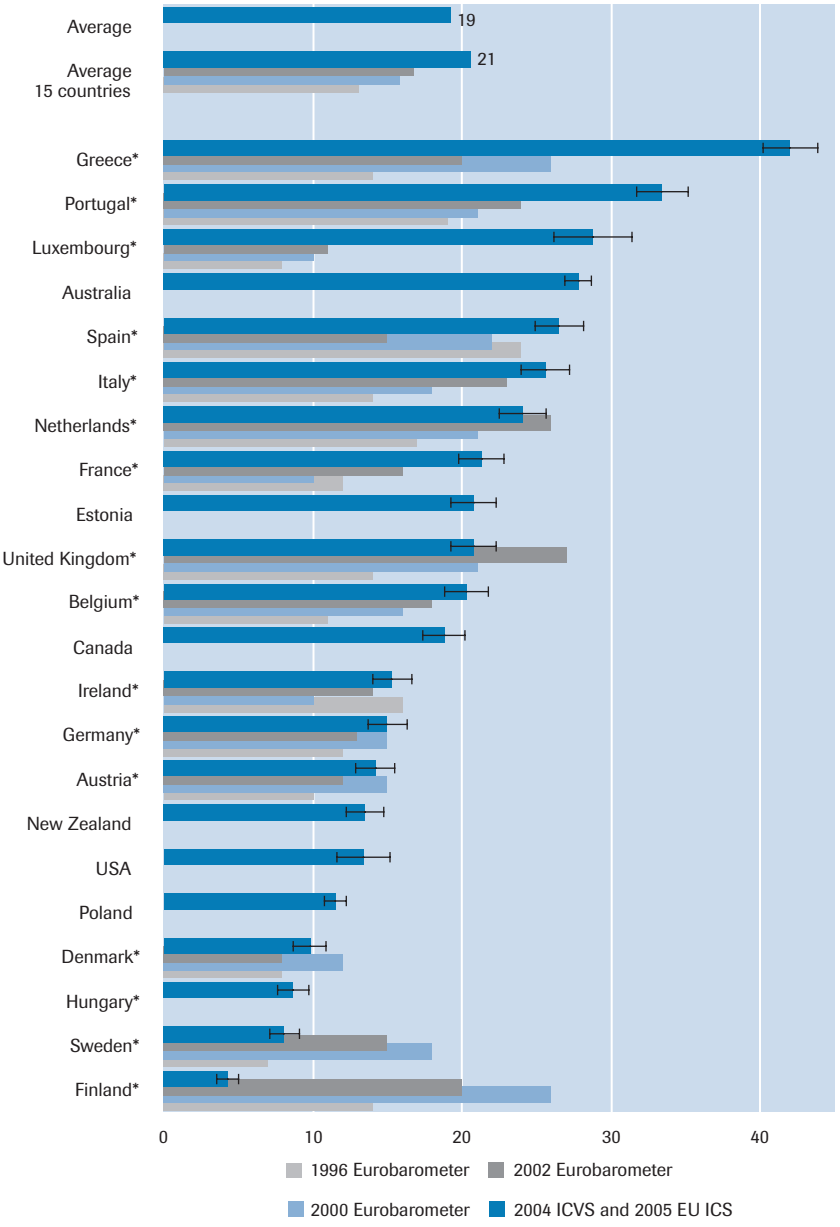
6.4 Exposure to drug-related problems in developed countries

Several surveys ask respondents about their perceptions of drug-related problems. Answers to such questions give little information about actual trends in drug-related problems on the ground. Following the methodological approach of a crime victim survey, a question was designed for use in the ICVS on personal experiences of respondents with drug-related problems in their area of residence (Van Dijk, 1996). The question asks:

> *'Over the last 12 months, how often were you personally in contact with drug-related problems in the area where you live? For example seeing people dealing in drugs, taking or using drugs in public places, or by finding syringes left by drug addicts?'*

This item was first introduced in a set of ICVS-based questions used in the framework of the Eurobarometer (INRA, 1996) in 15 countries. It was used in subsequent Eurobarometer surveys on crime in 2000 and 2002 (EORG, 2003). In 2004/2005 it was added to the EU ICS questionnaire. The item was also added to most of the ICVS questionnaires used in 2004 in other countries as well. Historical results were taken from the Eurobarometer, trend data is not available for the other ountries. Figure 20 provides an overview of the trends from country to country in 1996, 2000, 2002 and 2005.

Figure 20 **Very often and from time to time in contact with drugs-related problems; percentage of the population in 2003/04 in Australia, USA and 16 EU member states and earlier results from the Eurobaromer. 2005 EU ICS and Eurobarometer 1996-2000-2002**



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

Overall, in the 15 EU ICS countries (excluding Hungary), 21% experienced drug-related problems often or from time to time over the last 12 months in 2004/2005. The highest scores in Europe were found in 2005 in Greece, Luxembourg, Spain and Portugal. The average for all countries together is a bit lower, 19%. Almost 28% of the Australian population has experiences with drugs problems at least from time to time. Lowest scores were found in Finland, Sweden, Hungary and Denmark, less than ten percent in these countries.

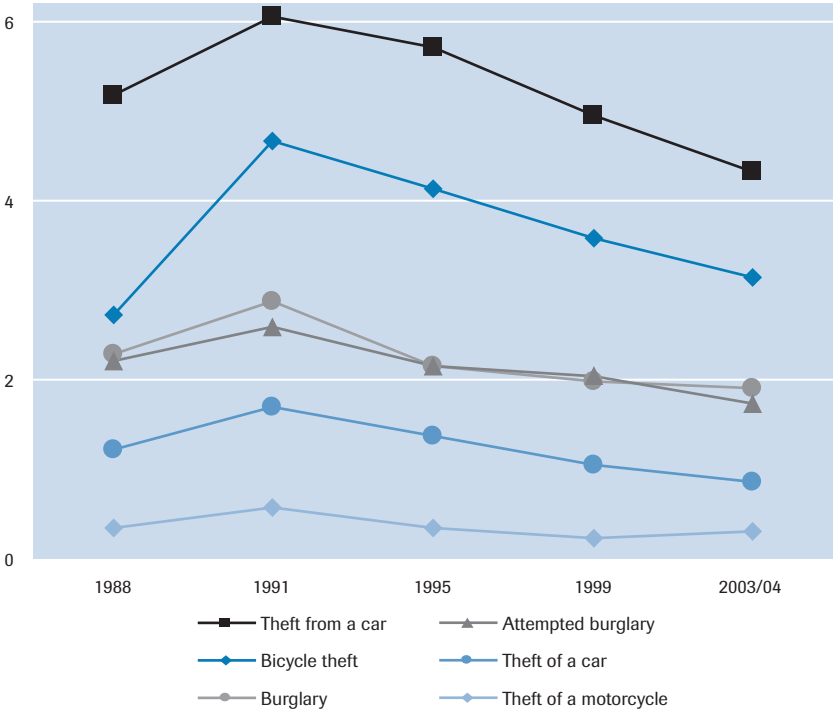
The trend data show a steady growth across the European Union in exposure to such problems from 13% in 1996, to 17% in 2000 and 2002 and 21% in 2005.
Country rates show divergent trends since 1996. The United Kingdom, Sweden and Finland showed lower rates in 2005 than before. The United Kingdom, Sweden and the Netherlands have gone down in the country rankings on this measure.

Contact of the general public with drug-related problems cannot be seen as an indicator of the actual level of drugs consumption. In some countries drug-related phenomena stay more underground than in others as a result of more repressive policies towards use and possession. No strong relationships were found between the extent of the public's exposure to drugs and national rates of cannabis consumption and estimated rates of drug addicts. No relationships were found between exposure to drug-related problems and levels of property crime either.

7 Victimisation trends

As noted in chapter 2, overall trends in victimisation have shown a curved trend since 1988 with a peak in the early or mid 1990s. We will now take a closer look at these trends, differentiating between different types of crime. Since countries participating in the ICVS have changed across the five sweeps of the surveys, mean rates of the sweeps may have been affected by changes in the composition of participants. Furthermore, the irregular repetition of surveys in developing countries does not allow for trend analysis beyond the industrialised world. 15 Western countries have participated in at least four different waves of the ICVS and five have participated in all five (Canada, Finland, England & Wales, the Netherlands and USA). Trend data have been analysed for both the group of fifteen countries and for the group of five countries separately. The trends of types of crime did not differ between the two groups and we will therefore focus here on the trends shown by the group of 15 countries participating four times or more. Figures 21 and 22 show the mean rates for property crimes and contact crimes since 1988.

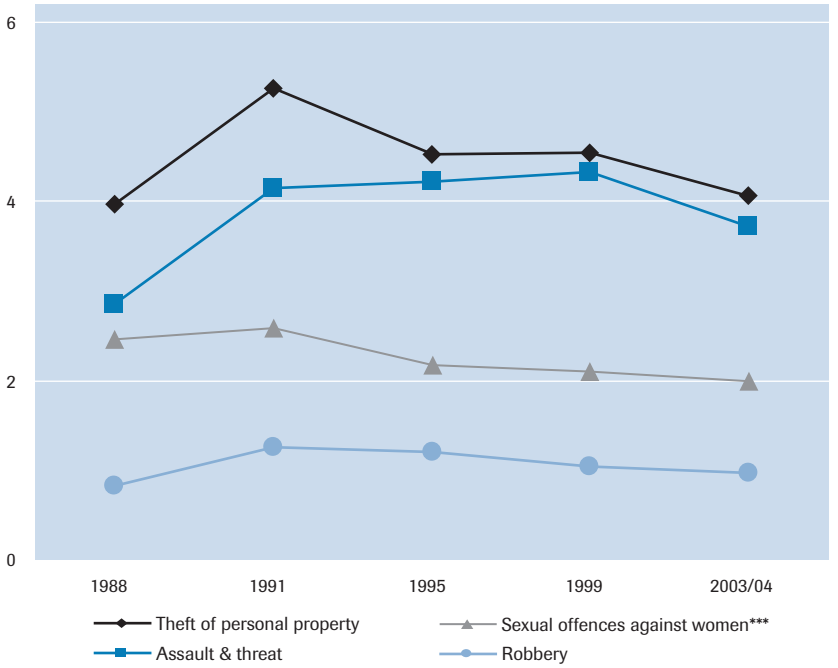
Figure 21 **Trends in crime: average of one year prevalence rates for 5 property crimes in the 15 countries** that participated four times or more. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Australia, Belgium, Canada, England & Wales, Estonia, Finland, France, Netherlands, New Zealand, Northern Ireland, Poland, Scotland, Sweden, Switzerland and USA.

Figure 22 **Trends in crime: average of one year prevalence rates for three contact crimes and theft of personal property in the 15 countries that participated four times or more. 1989–2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Australia, Belgium, Canada, England & Wales, Estonia, Finland, France, Netherlands, New Zealand, Northern Ireland, Poland, Scotland, Sweden, Switzerland and USA.

*** Sexual offences against women in 2004/05 are based on one country less, because this crime was not included in the 2004 Australian questionnaire.

7.1 Property crimes

The six types of property crimes depicted show very similar trends, although at different levels. The most frequently occurring types of property crime are theft from a car and bicycle theft. Both types peaked around 1991 and showed a consistent decline thereafter. The drop in bicycle theft seems to have stagnated since 1999 in some countries. These two highly prevalent types of crime have greatly contributed to the decreases in overall crime since 1991. Burglaries and attempted burglaries show less pronounced trends. Car theft is a less common crime with rates dropping after 1991, followed by stabilisation. As discussed in chapter 3, the decrease is mainly caused by a drop in less professional types of car theft

such as for the purpose of 'joyriding' or temporary transportation. Thefts of motorcycles or mopeds dropped after 1991 like the other types of property crime but there is no evidence of further decline.

7.2 Contact crimes and theft of personal property

Personal thefts show the by now familiar curve-linear trend with an all-time peak in 1991. Threats & assaults do not fully conform to this pattern: rates of victimisation peaked around 1999. Sexual offences and robberies show no distinct trends but seem to be decreasing slowly. The trends are shown in figure 22.

7.3 Trend patterns

As said, ICVS-based prevalence rates of 1988, 1992, 1996, 2000 and 2003/04 are available for five countries. In the USA victimisation by common crimes has peaked earlier than elsewhere. Rates of victimisation in 1992 were below those in 1988 and have continued to go down thereafter. In Canada the turning point in levels of common crime came somewhat later than in the USA, similar to what happened in most European countries and Australia. Since comparable data on sexual offences lack for 2004, the overall victimisation rate of Australia is not strictly comparable. Nevertheless Australia shows the same trend as the European countries with an all time peak around 2000 for most types of crime and a sharp drop thereafter (Johnson, 2005a).

The three EU countries participating in all surveys show roughly identical trends. Rates went up between 1989 and 1992/1996 and subsequently decreased between 1996 and 2004. In Finland, the 2004 rates were much lower than those of 2000. Continuing declines since 2000 were also recorded in the Netherlands, England & Wales and Scotland[1]. Poland, for which national data are available since 1991, shows a clear and consistent downward trend. From a European perspective, Poland has turned from a high crime into a medium crime country. This is also the case with Spain.

Within Europe three countries deviate from the general pattern of dropping victimisation trends. Belgium and Northern Ireland are the only European countries where levels of victimisation have not shown a decrease. Both were identified by the ICVS as distinctly low crime coun-

1 The ICVS trends are broadly in line with those emerging from the British and Dutch national crime surveys, indicating drops in over all crime of 40% over the past ten years (sources: www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfso5/hosb1105tab201.xls; www.wodc.nl). Results of the French national survey of 2006 indicate a drop in property crimes and stable rates of violence since 2004 (INHES, 2007).

tries in 1988 but have now moved up into the category of countries with levels of crime above the mean. No trend data are available on Ireland but according to Irish surveys crime has indeed gone up since 1998 (Central Statistical Office Ireland, 2004).

The results show that in Finland and the Netherlands the level of property crime is now lower than in 1988. Property crime has also fallen significantly in England & Wales since 1991. The picture of contact crimes is more varied. Violent crime has remained stable in the Netherlands and has increased in England & Wales from 1988 to 2000 and remained stable since then. Contact crimes have dropped below the level of 1988 in Finland.

In the course of the past ten years the levels of victimisation in the Western world seem to have converged. Differences between the USA, Canada, Australia and Western and Central Europe have narrowed down. Although trend data are available from only two middle income cities in the developing world, these too point at a downturn in overall victimisation since 1996 (Buenos Aires) or 2000 (Johannesburg). Crime trends across the developed and middle income countries, then, show remarkable uniformity.

ICVS results show an increase in general crime between 1988 and 1991 and a downward trend since 1996 or 2000 across the developed world[2].

7.4 Trends in context

The drop in crime across European countries as well as in the US, Canada, Australia and many other developed countries cannot be attributed to one single factor. The general consensus holds that changing demographics, among other factors, have played a causal role in the decreases in crime across the Western world. Since the bulk of common crimes are committed by young males, the proportion of adolescents in societies makes, as said, a difference to the levels of crime. Within the EU (15 countries) the proportion of the population aged 15 to 24 years decreased from 14.1% in 1993 to 12.2% in 2004 (epp.eurostat.cec.eu.int).

2 The sharp downward trends in victimisation rates in the West over the past decade have been confirmed in national victimisation surveys of several countries, including the USA, the Netherlands and England & Wales (Farrington, Langan, Tonry, 2004). In the USA the percentage of households that experienced any crime declined from 25% in 1994 to 16% in 2000 (BJS, 2002). In the UK overall victimisation peaked in 1995 and has now fallen back to the level of the 1980's (sources: www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfso5/hosb1105tab201.xls). In the Netherlands the most common types of crime such as burglaries, car thefts and pickpocketing have been reduced by 40% between 1993 and 2004, according to the annual Dutch National Victimisation Surveys (www.wodc.nl).

Another factor that is often cited to explain the drop in crime in the Western world is better policing and/or more severe sentencing (Blumstein, Wallman, 2006). It is possible that the general trend towards more severe sentencing has contributed to the drop in crime by acting as a deterrent on some classes of (potential) offenders and/or through incapacitating a larger proportion of career offenders. Within the European context, though, this explanation is far from straightforward, since sentencing policies show considerable variation across countries and crime has gone down in equal measure almost everywhere. Prison populations have gone up in many EU countries since the early nineties but not consistently so and not to the same extent. Between 1995 and 2000 rates went down, for example, in Sweden, France, Poland and Finland (European Sourcebook, 2003). Sentencing policies in Europe as a whole are considerably less punitive than in the USA (Farrington, Langan, Tonry, 2004) and yet crime has fallen just as steeply in Europe as it did previously in the USA. Relationships between the severity of sentencing of countries and trends in national levels of crime are therefore far from obvious.

Perhaps a more significant factor inhibiting crime across the Western world is the universal growth in the possession and use of security measures by households and companies over the past few decades. ICVS-based trend data on the use of precautionary measures, presented in the chapter 12, show that in all Western countries the use of measures to prevent household burglaries has risen over the past 15 years. Potential victims of crime seem to have responded to higher crime rates with increased concerns about crime and additional investments in measures to avoid or reduce risks. It seems likely that 'opportunities of crime' have shrunk due to improved self-protection of households and businesses in all developed countries and that this has brought down levels of victimisation.

Property crimes have gone down more steeply than prevalent types of contact crimes. A possible explanation of these divergent trends is that improved security has reduced levels of many forms of property crime such as burglary and non-professional car theft but has had less immediate impact on contact crimes. Some affluence-related risk factors of violent crimes such as alcohol abuse among young people may in fact have increased in some countries and thereby increased levels of violence. Another factor that might have increased violent crimes in Europe could be the increase in ethnic tensions manifesting itself in 'hate crimes' against immigrants and possible retaliations.

The less pronounced drop in contact crimes may also indicate that the criminal justice system as a whole has less impact on reducing crime levels than we would like to see. Since a large group of offenders is known to the victims of contact crime or can be more easily identified, clearance

rates for contact crime are higher than for property crime. If the drop in crime would have been caused by better law enforcement and/or tougher sentencing, contact crimes should show a steeper drop than property crime. Since this is not the case, the trend data suggest that other mechanisms than increased efforts by the criminal justice system play a more dominant part.

8 Victimisation and police recorded crime

In order for the police to be able to record a crime experienced by a victim, the victim must have reported his experience to the police. Since reporting rates vary across countries, as will be discussed in chapter 9, a better match is to be expected if national victimisation rates are adjusted for differential reporting (Van Dijk, Mayhew, Killias, 1999). Police-recorded crimes in selected countries were compared with both the victimisation incidence rates and for incidence rates corrected for reporting (incidence rates of reported victimisations).

Lynch and Addington have argued that comparisons of the results of the American National Crime Victims Surveys and the Uniform Crime Reports should focus on change estimates rather than level estimates since none of the two sources is very good at measuring true levels of crime (Lynch, Addington, 2007). Although the situation may be different in a comparison of relative levels of crime of a group of countries, the point is well taken that comparisons of level estimates pose other problems than change estimates. In theory change estimates from both sources might be highly correlated, even if level estimates are not. In our analysis of international data, we have looked at both the congruence between level estimates (2004 for the ICVS, 2003 for the recorded crime rates) and at congruence between the change estimates during the last few years (ICVS: 1999-2004; recorded crime: 1999-2003).[1]

Comparisons were made between (i) incidence victimisation rates and police figures; (ii) incidence victimisation rates adjusted for reporting and police figures; (iii) police trends in incidence victimisation rates and police figures; and (iiii) trends in incidence victimisation rates adjusted for reporting and trends in police figures.

For all European countries and also Australia, Canada, New-Zealand and the USA (28 countries) the incident victimisation rates and the estimated number of reported victimisations for 2004 are taken from the ICVS. Where available (16 countries) these figures were also collected for 1999. Police data on recorded crimes were taken from the latest version of the European Sourcebook (2006). The data from For Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the USA, have been taken from the websites of the respective

1 Analyses of European Sourcebook data have shown that the variation between recorded crime rates in countries was larger than the variation between the numbers of offenders arrested (Smit, Meijer & Groen, 2004). It seemed worth exploring whether the number of offenders arrested is a more stable indicator of the level of crime than the recorded crime rate. For this reason also the rates of offenders arrested were included in the comparisons with ICVS-based rates. Incidence victimisation rates and rates of arrested offenders were found to be uncorrelated for almost all types of crime and results are therefore not reported here. The hypothesis that numbers of arrests are a better indicator of levels of crime was not confirmed.

ministries of justice[2]. Results are presented in table 18. The figures to the right of the incidence rates refer to the number of countries included in the analysis.

The number of crimes recorded by the police were found to be weakly correlated with the ICVS-based measure of victimisation by any crime (0.42, n=24, $p<0.05$). The countries with the highest numbers of police recorded crimes are Iceland, Sweden, Finland, United Kingdom and Denmark. According to the ICVS and EU ICS, the level of crime is relatively low in Finland and medium to high in Sweden. Iceland is on the high end according to the ICVS, but crime is not twice as high as the European average as the recorded crime suggests. Countries with the lowest numbers of police-recorded crimes include Estonia, Mexico and Ireland, countries with levels of crime significantly above the European mean according to the ICVS and EU ICS. Earlier comparison, based on ICVS 1996 and 2000 European Sourcebook also showed that countries in transition were situated mostly below regression line, what means that their police statistics underestimated the real number of crime compared to western (Gruszynska & Gruszczynski, 2005).

The types of crimes measured by victimisation surveys differ greatly from those recorded by the police. Comparisons between the two measures should preferably be made for specific types of crime such as burglaries or robberies that are defined roughly identically in both systems. The crime types chosen for the analysis are listed in table 17.

Although the operationalisations of the offences in the ICVS do not correspond exactly with those used in the European Sourcebook for police-recorded crimes (e.g. sexual incidents are a broader category than rape), the comparison of the individual types of crime should in theory produce better results than that of overall victimisation with total recorded crime.

2 Australia: Australian Bureau of Statistics; publication 4510.0 – Recorded Crime – Victims, Australia, 2006.
Canada: Statistics Canada (webpage: www40.statcan.ca/101/cst01/legal02.htm)
New-Zealand: Statistics New Zealand (webpage: www.stats.govt.nz/NR/rdonlyres/7D5A6256-3D51-4F8E-ADF3-C0FC0B55D66B/0/CrimeinNewZealand19962005.pdf)
USA: Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics Online, table 3.106.2004 (webpage: www.albany.edu/sourcebook/pdf/t31062004.pdf)

Table 17 Type of crimes used for comparison with recorded crime statistics

Crime type	Corresponding ICVS crime types	Corresponding Police Recorded crime types
Motor vehicle theft	Car theft and Motorcycle theft	Theft of a motor vehicle
Theft total	The sum of car theft, theft from or out of cars, motorcycle theft, bicycle theft, burglary, attempted burglary theft of personal property	Theft total
Robbery	Robbery	Robbery
Assault	Assaults / threats	Assault
Sexual	Sexual incidents	Rape
Contact crimes	Sum of robbery, assaults / threats, sexual incidents	Sum of robbery, assault and rape

Table 18 Correlations (R) between the ICVS victimisation rates and the recorded crime levels for 7 types of crimes in 2003/04 and correlation between *trends* from the ICVS and recorded crime. 2000-2004/05 ICVS, 2005 EU ICS and European Sourcebook 2004

	Correlations with recorded crime levels				Correlations of trends in crime levels			
	Incident rates and recorded		Reported and recorded		Incident rates and recorded		Reported and recorded	
Crime type	R	N	R	N	R	N	R	N
MVT	0.48	23	0.47	22	0.31	14	0.45	13
Theft	0.39	26	0.67	25	0.02	14	0.01	13
Robbery	0.20	27	0.43	27	0.47	15	0.50	15
Assault	0.37	26	0.58	26	0.13	15	0.06	15
Sexual	0.43	24	0.54	24	-0.33	15	-0.35	15
Contact	0.27	24	0.62	24	0.17	15	0.23	15

For most types of crime, incidence victimisation rates are only weakly correlated to numbers of police-recorded crimes. The correlations between the two measures of the levels of different types of crime are much stronger when victimisation rates are adjusted for reporting to the police, with the exception of motor vehicle theft (a type of crime that is almost always reported). In other words, there is closer correspondence in relative risks of crime when account is taken of differences in reporting to the police. These results confirm the belief that levels of recorded crimes cannot be reliably used for comparing levels of types of common crime across countries because of differential reporting. The somewhat stronger correlations found between incidents reported to the police and police-recorded crime indicate that the number of crimes reported by victims is one of the factors determining the officially recorded input of police forces.

The changes or trends in reported victimisation and police recorded crime during the last four or five years hardly correlate at all, or correlate negatively. Only for motor vehicle theft and robbery weak positive correlations were found. Other studies have likewise found that crime victim surveys and police figures often produce strikingly different change estimates among developed nations (Farrington, Langan & Tonry, 2004; Cook & Khmilevska, 2005). Killias, Haymon and Lamon (forthcoming, 2007) applied a similar model as used by Farrington, Langan and Tonry for comparing trends in Switzerland over a period of 20 years. They conclude that survey data and police statistics correspond closely in describing the direction of trends but not in estimating their magnitude.

In England Stepherd and Sivarajasingam (2005) found that in England & Wales decreases in rates of victimisation by violent crime matched decreases according to hospital admissions but differed from the increases in police-recorded violent crimes.

Further research is needed but available evidence suggests that at least over a brief period of time, police recorded crime data do not seem a sufficient measure to determine trends in the actual crime in a comparative perspective. To determine trends in actual crime across countries, periodic crime victim surveys seem an indispensable tool.

9 Reporting crimes to the police and victim satisfaction

This section concentrates firstly on the issue of reporting victimisation to the police. It considers how reporting rates vary across offence types, and across countries. The reasons for not reporting a burglary are then considered. Also the findings on reporting from previous ICVS surveys will be discussed briefly. The section then moves on to what victims who reported felt about the police response: how many were satisfied with it, and if they were not, why.

Reporting to the police and other victim responses differ little between victims living in main cities or elsewhere in countries. In this chapter results from the 30 countries are therefore combined with those from main cities.

9.1 Reporting to the police

The frequency with which victims (or relatives and friends on their behalf) report offences to the police is strongly related to the type of offence involved. In most countries, almost all cars and motorcycles stolen were reported, as well as 75% of burglaries with entry. About two-thirds of thefts from cars were reported, and rather more than half of bicycle thefts and robberies. Only about a third of all assaults and threats were drawn to the attention of the police, although the figure was higher for assaults with force than for threats. Sexual incidents mentioned to interviewers were least frequently reported (on average 15%). Where sexual assault was mentioned, though, 28% of incidents were reported; where offensive behaviour was involved, only 10% were drawn to police attention.

Reporting rates for nine types of crime are presented in appendix 8. For the sake of comparison, reporting levels were calculated for five offences for which levels of reporting vary across countries and rates of victimisation are comparatively high[1]. These offences are thefts from cars, bicycle theft, burglary with entry, attempted burglary and thefts of personal property. Figure 27 and table 20 show reporting percentages for these five types of crime together in 2003/2004. The results confirm that reporting patterns show considerable inter-country variation. The reporting figures for each individual crime are in appendix 8, tables 10 and 12.

In the 30 countries and 12 main cities on average 41% of the five crimes were reported to the police. Among the 30 countries where national samples were drawn roughly half of the five crimes were reported to the police (53%). The highest reporting rates were in Austria (70%), Belgium (68%), Sweden (64%) and Switzerland (63%). With the exception of Hungary, all countries with relatively high rates are among the most affluent of the world.

1 Omitted are car and motorcycle thefts (which are usually reported and are relatively uncommon), and robbery (for which numbers per country are small). Also omitted are sexual incidents and assaults/threats. Here, the proportion reported will be influenced by, respectively, the ratio of sexual assaults to offensive sexual behaviour, and assaults to threats.

Table 19 **Reporting to the police of five types of crime (*) in 2003/04 (percentages) in countries and main cities and results from earlier surveys. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

Country	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003-2004	
Austria			62		70	*
Belgium	60	77		65	68	*
Sweden		59	60	61	64	*
Switzerland	67		63	58	63	
Germany	63				61	*
England & Wales	70	69	65	64	61	*
Scotland	72		67	62	61	
Denmark				62	60	*
Northern Ireland	44		53	63	59	
United Kingdom	71		67	62	59	*
Netherlands	64	66	58	64	58	*
Hungary					58	
New Zealand		67			57	
France	62		53	51	54	*
Japan				44	54	
Norway	50				53	
Australia	61	53		53	52	
Portugal				38	51	*
Ireland					51	*
Italy		42			50	*
USA	57		58	53	49	
Greece					49	*
Finland	53	49	53	45	48	*
Canada	55	53	52	48	48	
Luxembourg					48	*
Spain	36				47	*
Poland		34	35	43	46	
Estonia		33	28	38	43	
Iceland					40	
Istanbul (Turkey)					38	
Bulgaria					35	
Hong Kong (SAR China)					24	
Mexico					16	
Average**	59	55	55	54	47	
Cities in developing countries						
Johannesburg (RSA)					35	
Buenos Aires (Argentina)					21	
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)					18	
Maputo (Mozambique)					17	
Lima (Peru)					16	
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)					14	
Sao Paulo (Brazil)					12	
Average					19	

(*) The five crimes are theft from a car, theft of a bicycle, burglary, attempted burglary and theft of personal property.

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

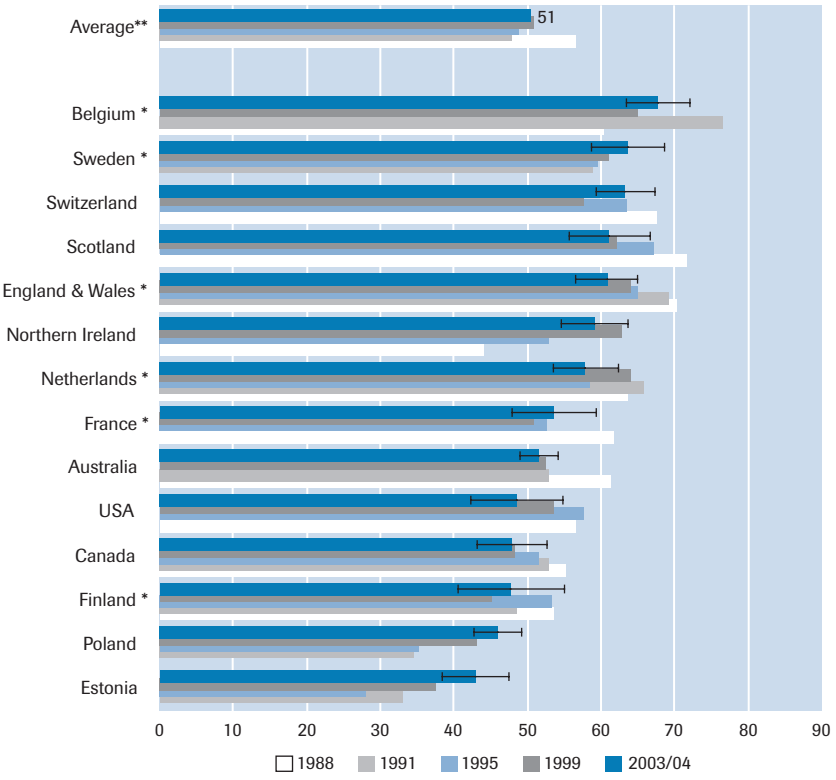
** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

As in previous rounds of the ICVS, reporting rates are very low in participating developing countries. Brazil (Sao Paulo), Cambodia (Phnom Penh), Peru (Lima), Mexico, Mozambique (Maputo) stand out with reporting rate below 20%. Reporting is also comparatively low in Hong Kong (24%).

Countries with medium low reporting rates – between 35 % and 45% – include South Africa (Johannesburg), Turkey (Istanbul), Bulgaria, Iceland, Estonia and Poland.

Figure 23 shows trend data on reporting of countries participating more than once in the ICVS.

Figure 23 Reporting to the police for five crimes* in 2003/04 (percentages) and earlier results for countries that participated at least 4 times. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

*** The five crimes are theft from a car, theft of a bicycle, burglary, attempted burglary and theft of personal property.

Reporting rates have gone down since 1988 or 1992 in Belgium, Scotland, England & Wales, the Netherlands, France, New Zealand, USA, and Canada, but this is largely caused by the changing composition of the crimes that are reported. There are no distinct trends in reporting rates for individual types of crime with the exception of bicycle theft. The reporting rate of bicycle theft has decreased almost everywhere in recent years. More and more victims of bicycle theft refrain from reporting the incident to the police. Reporting rates have gone up in Poland and Estonia, probably due to post-communist reforms of national police forces that have increased trust among the community. Relative levels of reporting are broadly consistent over the sweeps, and where there are changes they are not always statistically robust.

Reasons for not reporting a burglary to the police

In the older versions of the ICVS all victims who did not report were asked why not in relation to five crimes – burglary with entry, thefts from cars, robbery, sexual incidents, and assaults and threats. (The last three are termed 'contact crimes'). More than one reason could be given. Interviewers did not read out possible answers. Previous analyses showed that the numbers of reasons for not reporting given varied across countries, possibly as a result of different degrees of prompting by interviewers. For efficiency reasons in the ICVS 2005 the question was only put to those who had not reported a case of burglary (see table 21).

Table 20 Reasons for not reporting a case of burglary to the police (percentages* for the last incident in a period of five years). 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS

Mentioned reasons	Percentage*
Not serious enough	34
Solved it myself	18
Inappropriate for police	15
Other authorities	3
My family solved it	11
No insurance	4
Police could do nothing	21
Police wont do anything	20
Fear/dislike of police	6
Did no dare	4
Other reasons	17
Do not know	5

* Multiple answers were allowed, percentages add up to more than 100%.

In the ICVS 2005 by far the most important reason for not bringing in the police in the case of burglary was that the incident was not serious enough. About one in three non-reporters nationally and one of five in main cities mentioned this. A quarter of victims felt it was inappropriate to call the police, or said they or the family solved it. The idea that the police could do nothing was mentioned fairly frequently (e.g., by one in five victims of car theft who did not report). At the country level 20% mentioned as reason that the police won't do anything. This percentage is higher at the level of main cities. Within Europe 'won't do anything' is more often mentioned in the main city (e.g. Rome and Amsterdam) than at national level. Few victims mentioned fear or dislike of the police as a reason for not reporting a burglary. Fear of reprisals was also infrequently mentioned. Many victims mentioned other reasons for not reporting.

Reasons for reporting to the police

The 1996 ICVS introduced the open question why victims did report. Since previous sweeps had shown fairly stable and unsurprising results, the question was not retained in the ICVS and EU ICS 2005 survey for reasons of efficiency. The reasons why sexual incidents and assaults & threats were reported reflected the concern of victims to stop what happened being repeated.

Many victims also wanted help. For the two property offences and robbery, more than a third was reported because assistance was sought in recovering property. When a burglary or theft from a car was involved, about a third did report for insurance reasons. About four in ten victims overall referred to the obligation to notify the police, either because they felt a crime such as theirs should be reported, or because what happened had been serious. Retributive motives – the hope that offenders would be caught and punished – weighed with nearly as many victims, though this was less evident when thefts from cars were involved. Results from the 1996 and 2000 ICVS were fairly similar when the comparison is restricted to the countries participating in each sweep.

9.2 Victim's satisfaction with the police response

If they had reported to the police, victims were asked whether they were satisfied with the police response[2]. Among the countries/cities satisfaction levels did not differ between different types of crime[3]. Figure 24 and table 21 show the results for the five types of crime together. To increase

2 This question was asked for the same five crimes as questions about reporting to the police: burglary with entry, thefts from cars, robbery, sexual incidents and assault & threats.

3 In developing countries victims of property crimes tend to be more dissatisfied than victims of contact crimes because they would have liked more effective support in recovering stolen goods for which no insurance has been taken (Van Dijk, 1999).

the number of cases, rates have been calculated on the number of respondents who reported crimes over a five year period. On average 53% of reporting victims were satisfied with the way the police had handled their complaint. Among the national samples 57% of reporting victims was satisfied. Satisfaction is on average lower among reporting victims in cities in developing countries (33%).

The respondents in Denmark (75%), Finland (72%), Switzerland (72%), Australia, Scotland and Luxembourg (70%) were most satisfied after reporting any of the five crimes, although figures in several other countries were not far behind. The police response was considered least satisfactory in Estonia (17%), Peru (18%), Maputo (27%), Greece (28%) and Mexico (28%). Considerably lower than the average were also satisfaction levels in Japan (44%), Italy (43%), Hungary (41%), Bulgaria (40%), Johannesburg (36%), Istanbul (33%) and Sao Paulo (32%).

For the countries also participating in the 1996 and 2000 sweeps of the ICVS, the picture in 2005 was generally similar with respect to relative levels of satisfaction with the police on reporting. Poland and France, for instance, are ranked comparatively low in victim satisfaction in 2005, as they did in 2000 and/or 1996. Police performance in Finland ranked relatively highly in all years.

In many parts of the world legalislative and operational actions have been taken to improve the treatment of crime victims. In the European Union, for example, legally binding minimum standards of victim reception went into force in 2003 (Council Framework Decision of 15 March 2001 on the Standing of Victims in Criminal Proceedings, SEC (2004) and Japan introduced victim-friendly legislation in 2002.
A cornerstone of these initiatives is a better treatment of victims by the police, including the right to be treated with consideration and respect and to be kept informed about investigations and prosecution decisions. In view of these initiatives, trends in victim satisfaction with the police are of special interest. Table 22 and figure 24 show results.

Though numbers are small, it is striking that in so many countries levels of satisfaction of the victims with the police have significantly gone down since 2000. This is most markedly the case in England & Wales and the USA (minus ten percent points), The Netherlands (minus 9), Canada (minus 8) and Sweden (minus 7). This downward trend in satisfaction is the more remarkable in view of new regional and national legislation in force promoting better treatment of victims by the police.

Table 21 Satisfaction with reporting to the police for victims of five types of crimes (percentages in a period of five years) in countries and main cities. 1996–2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

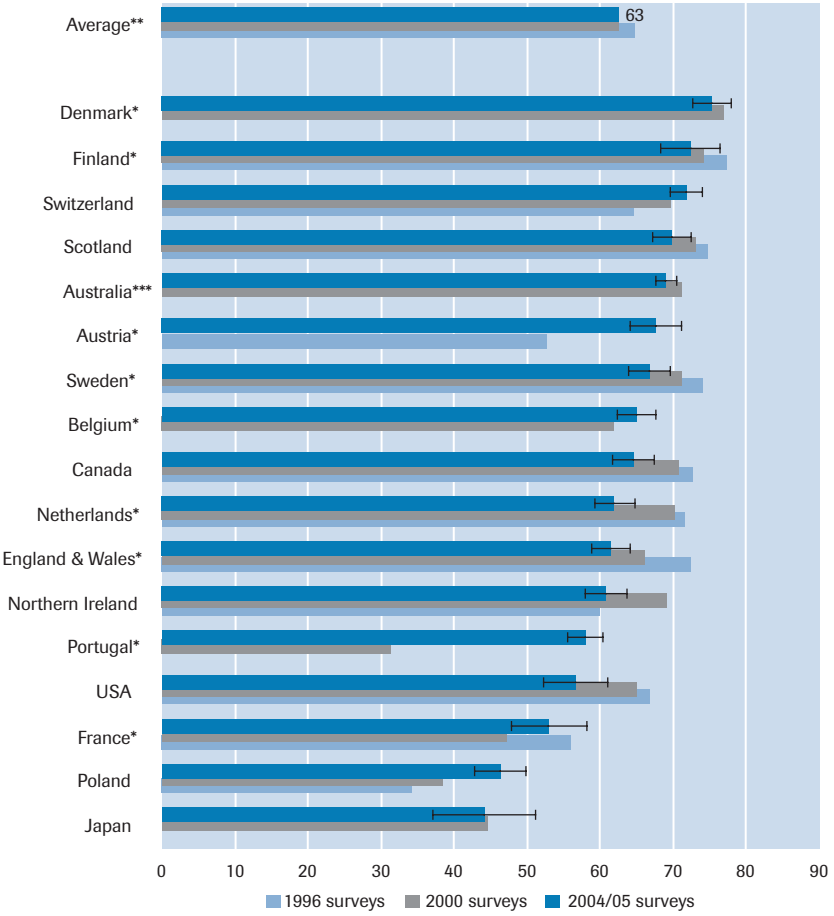
Country	1996 surveys	2000 surveys	2004/05 surveys
Denmark	.	77	75 *
Switzerland	64	70	72
Finland	77	74	72 *
Scotland	75	73	70
Luxembourg			70 *
Australia	.	71	69 ***
New Zealand			69
Austria	53		68 *
Germany			67 *
Sweden	74	71	67 *
Canada	73	71	65
Belgium		62	65 *
Spain			65 *
England & Wales	72	66	62 *
Netherlands	71	70	62 *
Northern Ireland	60	69	61
Ireland			61 *
Hong Kong (SAR China)			59
Portugal		31	58 *
USA	67	65	57
Iceland			55
Norway			55
France	56	47	53 *
Poland	34	39	46
Japan		45	44
Italy			43 *
Hungary			41 *
Bulgaria			40
Istanbul (Turkey)			33
Estonia			33
Mexico			28
Greece			28 *
Average**	65	63	57
Cities in developing countries			
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)			59
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)			49
Buenos Aires (Argentina)			44
Johannesburg (RSA)			36
Sao Paulo (Brazil)			32
Maputo (Mozambique)			27
Lima (Peru)			18
Average			38

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

*** Austalian rate for 2004 is based on 4 crimes (sexual offences were not asked in 2004) based on comparison of the same four and five crimes from the 2000 national survey we conclude that this does not make a difference.

Figure 24 **Satisfaction with reporting to the police for victims of five types(*) of crimes (percentages in a period of five years) in countries and main cities. 1996-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



(*) The five crimes are theft from a car, burglary, robbery, sexual offences and assault & threat

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

*** Australian rate for 2004 is based on 4 crimes (sexual offences were not asked in 2004) based on comparison of the same four and five crimes from the 2000 survey, this does not make a difference.

Nation-specific crime victim surveys in England & Wales and the Netherlands, using much larger samples, have also registered a decline in satisfaction with the police in recent years (Allan, et al, 2006; Veiligheidsmonitor, 2006). This result can be interpreted in different ways.

One explanation is that victims are treated as professionally as before but that expectations among victims have been raised to the point that they can no longer be satisfied by the police. Police forces may for example ask victims whether they would want to be informed about the investigation. If subsequently no information is given, victims might be more upset than when the issue had not been raised with them in the first place. Another possible interpretation is that police forces have for efficiency reasons bureaucraticised the reporting of crimes[4], e.g. by requesting reporting by phone or internet. Thirdly, in countries where special provisions for victims outside the police have been set up that collaborate closely with the police, police forces may feel that victim needs are duly met if a referral is made to such agencies. Decreased victim satisfaction with the police might be an unintended side effect of well run victim support agencies.

It is not possible to conclude which of these three factors has been the main determinant of reduced levels of victim satisfaction. Possibly all three have played a part. It seems striking though that in Europe victims are more stably satisfied with the police in countries where specialised victim support outside the police is not widely available, such as Denmark, France, Finland and Luxembourg. In contrast, levels of satisfaction have dropped most strongly in countries where police forces have the possibility to relegate victims to well-functioning specialised victim support agencies such as the USA, Canada, United Kingdom, Sweden and the Netherlands. An additional reason for the police to give less attention to crime victims might have been the adoption of new policing priorities such as terrorism prevention or stricter law enforcement [5].

Reasons for dissatisfaction with the police

Those respondents who indicated that they were not satisfied with the way the police handled the matter were asked why not (multiple responses were again allowed). Results for all five crimes for the 30 countries combined are in table 23. Overall, the main reason for dissatisfaction was that the police 'did not do enough'. This held across all five crimes, and was the complaint of two in three who answered. The second cause for dissatisfaction was that the 'police were not interested' – mentioned by about half. The next most common complaint overall was that no offender had been caught. The exception was assaults & threats, where impoliteness on the part of the police was mentioned more often. An explanation for this might be that the police think that some assault incidents involve

4 A factor behind the drop in satisfaction may the gradual increase of victims reporting by phone or via internet. There is some evidence that in England & Wales victims who have no face to face contacts with the police are somewhat less satisfied (Allan, 2005; 2006).

5 There is some evidence that service delivery by the police has declined. For example the Dutch crime victim survey shows that the provision of crime prevention advice to reporting victims has gone down significantly since the 1990s.

a degree of victim responsibility. For theft from cars and burglary with entry, around a quarter were dissatisfied because the police did not recover any stolen goods. The fifth most common reason of dissatisfaction was that the police had not given information (42%). One in five victims mentioned impoliteness as a source of dissatisfaction. One in three of female victims reporting sexual incidents did.

Table 22 Reasons for dissatisfaction with the police (percentages* for the last incident in a period of five years). 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS

Mentioned reasons	Theft from car	Burglary with entry	Robbery	Sexual incidents	Assaults & threats	All five crimes
Did not do enough	63	68	68	63	71	66
Were not interested	52	56	56	60	56	54
Did not find offender	55	58	56	58	42	54
Did not recover goods	52	49	36			48
Gave no information	44	44	40	49	37	42
Were impolite	20	25	29	34	25	22
Were slow to arrive	22	30	25	23	29	25
Other/don't know	19	36	26	44	29	14

* Multiple responses were allowed, percentages may add up to more than 100%.

Results for individual countries are based on a very small numerical base since answers are based only on those who (a) were victim of one of the five crimes; (b) reported to the police; and (c) were not satisfied. Comparisons across sweeps are difficult because, probably due to more prompting of multiple answers by interviewers, all response categories showed higher overall percentages in the last study.

To determine possible shifts in the relative importance of different types of complaints a comparison was made of the relative frequency of response categories in the various sweeps. Of particular interest seemed the percentages of reasons given that fell into the category 'did not give sufficient information'. The complaint about lack of information made up 7% of all reasons given in 1996 and 2000 and 12% in 2005. This upward trend in victims complaining about lack of information can be observed in most countries of the European Union.

10 Victim support

Victims who had reported to the police any of four types of crime with the most serious consequences for victims – burglary with entry, robbery, sexual incidents and threats & assaults – were asked whether they had received support from a specialised agency. Such support was described as 'information or practical or emotional support'. The percentage of victims receiving such help is called the coverage rate of victim support. Those who had not received any help were asked whether they would have appreciated help in getting such information or practical or emotional support. Using this information estimates are made of the proportion of victims wanting specialised help that actually receive it (called 'take up rate' of specialised victim support agencies).

10.1 Victims receiving support

For the victims of the four types of crimes together, 9% had received specialised support in 2005. Most likely to receive support are victims of sexual offences (30%). Less than one in ten of victims reporting robberies or threats & assaults had received help (robbery: 8%; threat & assault: 8%). Victims of burglaries with entry had much less often received help (4%).

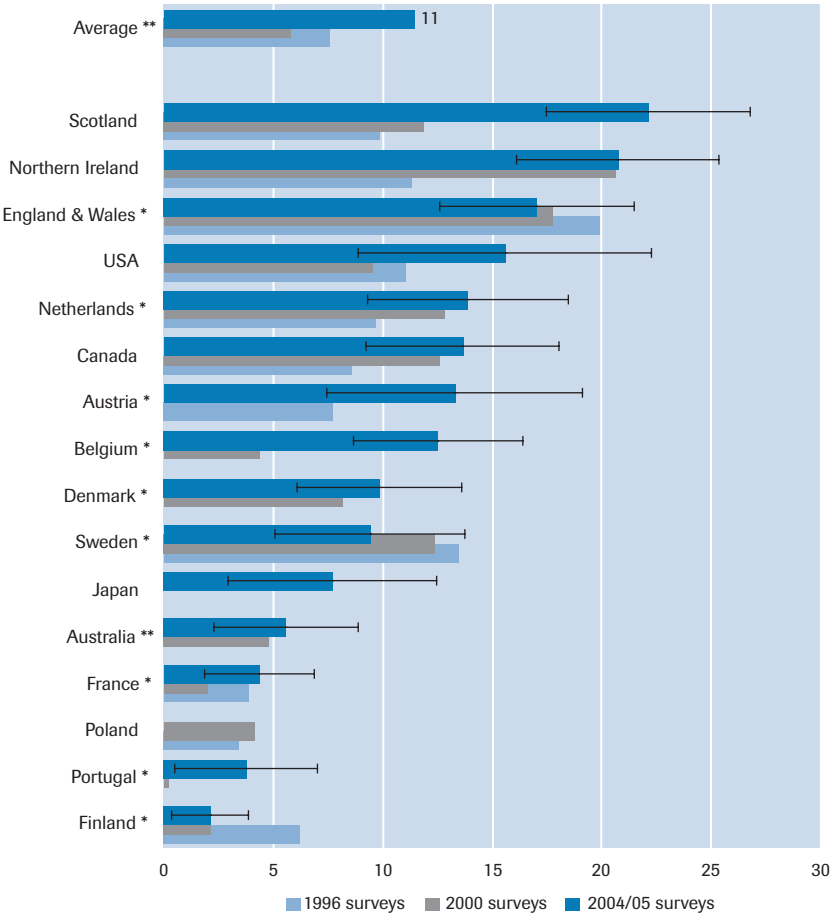
In most countries support is mainly offered to victims of contact crimes (robbery and crimes of violence, including sexual violence) and only rarely to victims of burglary. Only in the UK, the Netherlands and Belgium 10% or more of burglary victims received support. Country results for the four types of crime together are presented in table 23.

The coverage rates of specialised support agencies for crime victims are the highest in New Zealand (24%), Scotland (22%), Northern Ireland (21%), England & Wales (17%) and the USA (16%). Comparatively high rates were also found in South Africa/Johannesburg (15%), the Netherlands (14%), Canada (13%), Hong Kong (13%), Austria (13%), Belgium (12%), Denmark (10%), Norway (10%) and Sweden (9%). Within Europe victim support is most developed in the North West. Least support seems to be available in Hungary (0.4%), Lima (1%), Bulgaria (1%), Finland (2%), Germany (2%), Greece (2%), Maputo (2%), Turkey/Istanbul (2%), Italy (3%) and Spain (3%). No information is available for Poland but coverage was close to zero in 2000 (this was the reason for dropping the question).

The top position of New Zealand is corroborated by statistics on the numbers of clients of victim support according to the national victim support agency in New Zealand. In this country with a population of 4 million, circa 100,000 victims are assisted annually according to the national victim support organisation. (Personal communication from victim support). Numbers of clients of European victim support organisations are published in a report of the European Forum of Victim Services (EFVS, 2007). Besides New Zealand, Scotland, England & Wales, the Netherlands and Sweden top the list of

numbers of clients of victim support per 100,000 population. For 17 countries figures on coverage of victim support according to the ICVS can be compared with numbers of clients according to administrations of victim support organisations relating to 2004. The correlation between the two series is strong (r=.79; n=17; p< 0.05) and provides an external validation of ICVS-based information on crime victims.

Figure 25 **Trends in victim support from a specialised agency for victims of four crimes (percentage in a period of five years) in countries participating at least twice in the last three sweeps. 1996-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

*** The 2004 victim support rate for Australia is based on three crimes (sexual offences were not asked in 2004), based on comparison with the same three and four crimes from the 2000 survey we conclude there is a maximum of 1% lower rate if sexual offences would have been included.

Table 23 Support from a specialised agency for victims of four types of crime (percentage in a period of five years) in countries and main cities. 1996-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Country	1996 surveys	2000 surveys	2004/05 surveys
New Zealand			24
Scotland	10	12	22
Northern Ireland	11	21	21
England & Wales	20	18	17 *
USA	11	9	16
United Kingdom	11	13	16 *
Canada	9	13	14
Netherlands	10	13	14 *
Hong Kong (SAR China)			13
Austria	8		13 *
Belgium		4	13 *
Norway			10
Denmark		8	10 *
Sweden	13	12	9 *
Japan		0	8
Iceland			6
Ireland			6 *
Mexico			5
Luxembourg			5 *
Australia		5	6 ***
France	4	2	4 *
Poland	3	4	
Portugal		0	4 *
Spain			3 *
Italy			3 *
Istanbul (Turkey)			2
Greece			2 *
Germany			2 *
Finland	6	2	2 *
Bulgaria			1
Hungary			0 *
Average**	10	9	9
Cities in developing countries			
Johannesburg (RSA)			15
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)			3
Buenos Aires (Argentina)			2
Maputo (Mozambique)			2
Lima (Peru)			1
Average**			5

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

*** The 2004 victim support rate for Australia is based on three crimes (sexual offences were not asked in 2004), based on comparison with the same three and four crimes from the 2000 survey we conclude there is a maximum of 1% lower rate if sexual offences would have been included.

The proportion of victims contacted by victim support after they have reported to the police seems to have grown since 1996/2000 in a number of countries, though few differences are statistically robust. Figure 25 and table 23 shows available trend data.
Increases since 1988 can be observed in Austria (from 8 to 13%), Canada (9% to 14%), Belgium (4 to 13%), Japan (0 to 8%), the USA (11 to 16%) as well as in Northern Ireland (11 to 21%) and Scotland (10% to 22%). In countries with long-established nationwide infrastructures for victim support such as England & Wales, the Netherlands and Sweden, the degree of coverage has remained stable or declined. Elsewhere the coverage of victim support has remained at the same comparatively low level or even declined further.

10.2 Victims wanting victim support

Victims who had not received support were asked whether it would have been useful. On average 43% of victims reporting any of the four types of crime felt such help would indeed have been useful for them. Two out of three victims of sexual offences (68%) expressed a need of such help. Roughly four out of ten of the victims of the three other types of crime would have appreciated such help. As reported above, victims of burglary are less likely to receive help in most countries. But the percentage of burglary victims who would have welcomed support is not much lower than among victims of robbery or threat & assault (burglary, 40%; robbery, 44%; threat & assault, 42%). The latter results refute the assumption that victims of burglary are less in need of specialised help than victims of contact crime. Table 24 shows the country results for the four types of crime together.

Of crime victims in cities in developing countries who had not received help, on average 62% would have appreciated it. Victims in Lima are an exception (only 26% responded positively). Among the national surveys, the level of demand was highest in Portugal, Spain, Greece, Turkey and Poland (for 2000, no data on 2004 available). In all those countries such help is not readily available. Despite the relatively high level of support already given, unmet demand was also relatively high in the United Kingdom. The need of victim support seems relatively limited among victims in Bulgaria, Japan, Iceland and Austria.

The results indicate that the need for help among victims of serious crime is widespread, though not universal. The percentages of victims who would have appreciated help but did not receive it were 50 or higher in Asia, Africa, Latin America and Eastern Europe (Van Dijk, 2007). In developed nations only 30 to 40% express such unmet needs.
The distribution of the need of help across regions is the reverse of that of its actual reception. In developing countries many more victims would

Table 24 Percentages of victims of four types of crime who would have appreciated help from a specialised agency (percentage in a period of five years) in countries and main cities. 1996-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Country	1996 surveys	2000 surveys	2004/05 surveys	
Portugal		50	70	*
Spain			68	*
Greece			64	*
Istanbul (Turkey)			64	
Mexico			54	
Northern Ireland	43	43	45	
England & Wales	41	32	45	*
Luxembourg			43	*
Hungary			43	*
Ireland			42	*
Scotland	35	36	42	
Hong Kong (SAR China)			42	
Sweden	43	29	39	*
France	27	21	38	*
USA	39	36	38	
Norway			37	
Belgium		27	36	*
Italy			36	*
New Zealand			36	
Finland	36	35	32	*
Denmark		31	30	*
Australia		27	26	***
Netherlands	22	18	30	*
Canada	32	31	27	
Germany			27	*
Iceland			23	
Austria	38		26	*
Iceland			23	
Japan		41	20	
Bulgaria			13	
Average	36	33	39	
Cities in developing countries				
Sao Paulo (Brazil)			93	
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)			83	
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)			71	
Maputo (Mozambique)			54	
Buenos Aires (Argentina)			46	
Lima (Peru)			26	
Average**			62	

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

*** The 2004 victim support rate for Australia is based on three crimes (sexual offences were not asked in 2004), based on comparison with the same three and four crimes from the 2000 survey we conclude there is a maximum of 1% higher rate if sexual offences would have been included.

have wanted such help. This is partly caused by the fact that in those countries such help is rarely offered. The prevalence of special needs is likely to also reflect the lack of general provisions of health care or social services in poorer countries. Among developed countries the percentages of victims who would have liked to receive victim support tends to be smaller in countries with extended welfare states such as Iceland (23%), Austria (26%), Germany (27%), Canada (27%), the Netherlands (30%) and Denmark (30%). Higher percentages were found in the USA (38%), England & Wales (45%) and in some Southern European countries: Spain (68%) and Portugal (70%).

10.3 Take up rates of victim support

Globally, 8% of victims of serious crimes who have reported to the police had received specialised help in 2003/2004, while 43% of those who didn't, express a need of it. The proportion of victims whose expressed needs are met, can be approached by dividing the number of victims who received support by the numbers of those who received it plus those who would have wanted it (times 100). Such calculation shows that in the last couple of years agencies of victim support in the participating countries provided services to roughly 21% of victims with manifest needs. Using the same formula, victim support organisations reach 38% of the victims of sexual offences in need of specialised help, 20% of victims of robberies with such needs, 19% of victims of threat & assaults and 10% of victims of burglaries. For all four groups the supply of specialised help falls short of the demand. The gap between supply and demand of victim support is by far the largest for the group of burglary victims.

Percentages of victims whose expressed needs are actually met by the agencies vary across countries. Table 25 provides an overview. The proportions of victims of serious crimes with expressed support needs who were actually contacted by victim support are on average 20% at the country level and 4% in cities in developing countries. The highest take up rates are achieved by victim support in New Zealand (47%) and the UK (with percentages as high as 40 in Scotland, 37 in Northern Ireland and 31 in England & Wales). Comparatively high take up rates for victim support are also found in Austria (38%), Canada (37%), the Netherlands (35%), Japan (34%), the USA (33%), Belgium (28%) and Denmark (27%). Take up rates in the range of 10% to 25% are achieved in Hong Kong, Norway, Iceland, Sweden, Ireland, Australia, France and Luxembourg. In other countries less than 10% of the respondents who indicated that victim support would have been useful, actually receive it. The group of countries where victim support reaches only a small part of victims in need of help includes several affluent Western countries (Greece, Spain, Portugal, Finland, Italy and Germany).

Table 25 **Victim support pick-up rate. Percentage of victims that received victim support of those indicating a need for it (percentage in a period of five years) in countries and main cities. 1996-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

Country	1996 surveys	2000 surveys	2004/05 surveys	
New Zealand			47	
Scotland	24	28	40	
Austria	18		38	*
Northern Ireland	23	38	37	
Canada	23	32	37	
Netherlands	33	44	35	*
Japan		0	34	
USA	24	23	33	
England & Wales	38	40	31	*
United Kingdom	25	29	30	*
Belgium		15	28	*
Denmark		22	27	*
Hong Kong (SAR China)			25	
Norway			23	
Iceland			22	
Sweden	27	33	21	*
Australia		16	18	***
Ireland			13	*
France	13	9	11	*
Luxembourg			11	*
Bulgaria			10	
Poland	6	8		
Mexico			8	
Germany			8	*
Italy			7	*
Finland	16	6	6	*
Portugal		0	5	*
Spain			4	*
Greece			4	*
Istanbul (Turkey)			3	
Hungary			1	*
Average**	23	21	21	
Cities in developing countries				
Lima (Peru)			5	
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)			4	
Maputo (Mozambique)			4	
Buenos Aires (Argentina)			3	
Average			4	

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

*** The 2004 victim support rate for Australia is based on three crimes (sexual offences were not asked in 2004), based on comparison with the same three and four crimes from the 2000 survey we conclude that the pick-up rate would have been a bit lower rate if sexual offences would have been included.

11 Fear of crime

11.1 The likelihood of burglary

The ICVS provides a measure on concern about burglary by means of a question asking respondents the likelihood of their houses being burgled in the coming year. Inhabitants of main cities feel more at risk of having their houses burgled than national populations. Results will therefore be presented separately for countries and cities. Table 26 and figure 26 show the percentage of people in countries and main cities who rated the chance of burglary as 'very likely' or 'likely'.

Table 26 Percentage of public who consider a burglary in their houses in the coming year to be likely or very likely in 2004/05 and results from earlier surveys in countries and main cities. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1989	1992	1996	2000	2004-2005	*Main cities*	2001-2005 surveys
Greece					49 *	Istanbul (Turkey)	75
Japan				34	48	Athens (Greece)	73 *
Italy		38			43 *	Helsinki (Finland)	59 *
France	36		53	44	38 *	Rome (Italy)	46 *
Mexico					37	Lisbon (Portugal)	40 *
New Zealand		53			36	London (England)	40 *
Australia	44	47		36	36	Tallinn (Estonia)	40
England & Wales	35	45	41	33	35 *	Dublin (Ireland)	39 *
Portugal				58	35 *	Brussels (Belgium)	38 *
Luxembourg					34 *	Vienna (Austria)	36 *
Belgium	28	31		45	33 *	Paris (France)	34 *
Ireland					33 *	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	33
Bulgaria					31	Madrid (Spain)	33 *
Estonia		34	28	43	30	Sydney (Australia)	33
Northern Ireland	23		29	26	29	Warsaw (Poland)	27
Spain	41				26 *	Hong Kong (China)	26
Switzerland	46		29	27	26	Berlin (Germany)	25 *
Poland		40	24	26	25	Stockholm (Sweden)	25 *
Canada	33	33	30	29	25	Zurich (Switzerland)	25
Germany	54				23 *	Oslo (Norway)	24
Hungary					23	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	22 *
Austria			13		21 *	Budapest (Hungary)	21 *
Norway	21				21	Edinburgh (Scotland)	19
Scotland	30		28	23	21	New York (USA)	16
Netherlands	28	28	27	19	18 *	Copenhagen (Denmark)	14 *
Sweden		34	16	16	17 *	Average	35

Table 26 (Continued)

Countries	1989	1992	1996	2000	2004-2005		2001-2005 surveys
USA	31		23	16	16	*Cities in developing countries*	
Denmark				20	14 *	Sao Paulo (Brazil)	72
Finland	9	14	11	13	na *	Lima (Peru)	70
						Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	58
						Maputo (Mozambique)	56
						Buenos Aires (Argentina)	48
						Johannesburg (RSA)	46
						Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	20
Average*	35	41	29	31	29	Average	53

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

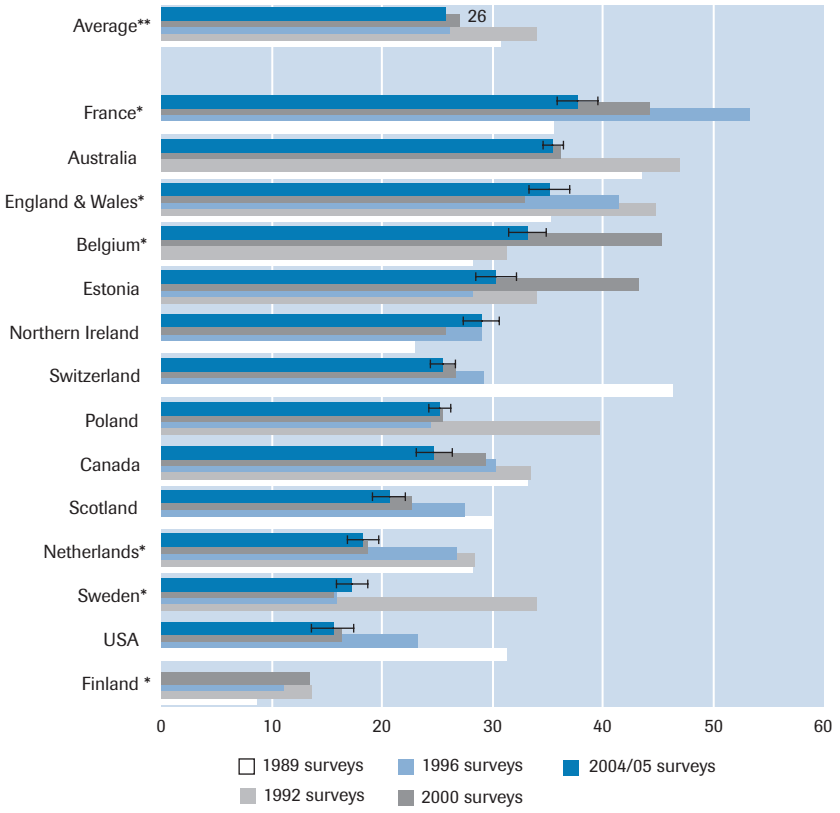
On average 29% of respondents deemed a burglary in the next twelve months likely or very likely. Among inhabitants of main cities in developed nations this was 35% and 53% in cities in developing countries. The national populations of Greece, Japan, Italy, France and Mexico were most concerned about burglary. There was least concern in the Scandinavian countries (under 21%), the USA and the Netherlands. At the city level, concern was most widespread in Istanbul, Sao Paulo, Lima, Rio de Janeiro and Maputo.

Figure 25 shows trends in feelings about the likelihood of burglary for several countries that have participated in the ICVS more than once. Concern about burglary has changed over time – essentially rising in general between 1989 and 1992 and falling thereafter. Concerns about burglary have dropped almost universally in the Western world since 2000. Relating ICVS trends in national burglary levels to trends in worry about burglary shows that perceptions of the likelihood of burglary broadly match trends in ICVS burglary levels. In the countries in which there was the strongest fall in concern, actual levels of burglary also fell more than elsewhere.

11.2 Relationship with national burglary risks and victimisation experience

The ICVS has previously found that perceptions of the likelihood of burglary at national level are strongly related to national ICVS risks of burglary: i.e., countries where the highest proportions feel vulnerable to burglary in the coming year are those where risks are highest. In the 2000 sweep, a relationship was again found between the proportions of those

Figure 26 **Percentage of public who consider a burglary in their houses in the coming year to be likely or very likely in 2004/05 and results from earlier surveys in countries that participated at least 3 times. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

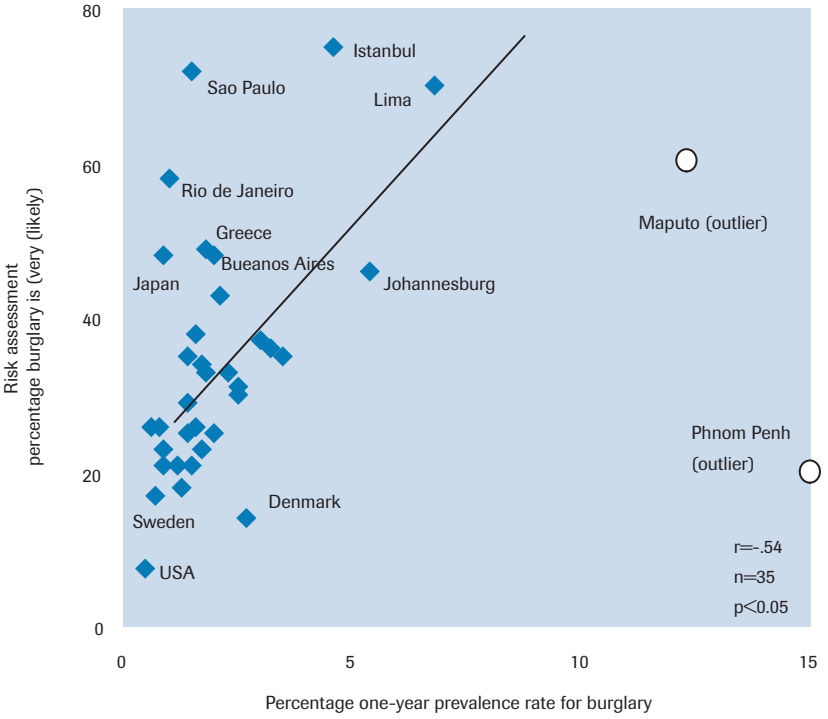


* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

thinking burglary was very likely and national burglary rates. In the 2005 data this relationship is confirmed. Among the 30 countries and 12 cities combined, perceived risks for burglary and actual risks were moderately strongly related ($r = 0.54$; $n = 35$; $p < 0.05$). The two Brazilian cities stand out because fear of burglary seems somewhat out of proportion of actual victimisation. In Maputo fear levels are high but the level of actual victimisation is comparatively high as well. People in Phnom Penh are exposed to high burglary risks but seem not to be very concerned. Japan emerges as a country where fear of burglary is higher than actual risks would predict. See figure 27.

Figure 27 **Plot of percentage of one year prevalence rates for burglary in 2003/04 and percentage of the population who consider a burglary next year to be likely or very likely in countries and main cities. 2002-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS**



11.3 Feelings of safety on the streets

Since 1992, the ICVS has asked the below question, often used in other crime surveys, to measure vulnerability to street crime:

> *'How safe do you feel walking alone in your area after dark? Do you feel very safe, fairly safe, a bit unsafe or very unsafe?'*

On average, a quarter of national populations felt very or a bit unsafe. The percentage is higher among inhabitants of main cities (37%), especially those in developing countries (61%). Details are in Table 27. Fear of street crime was lowest in the Scandinavian countries, Canada, the Netherlands, the USA and Austria. At the country level feelings of unsafety were most widespread in Bulgaria, Poland, Greece, Luxemburg, Japan and Italy.

Table 27 Percentage of the population feeling unsafe or very unsafe on the street after dark in 2004/05 and results from earlier surveys in countries and main cities. 1992-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

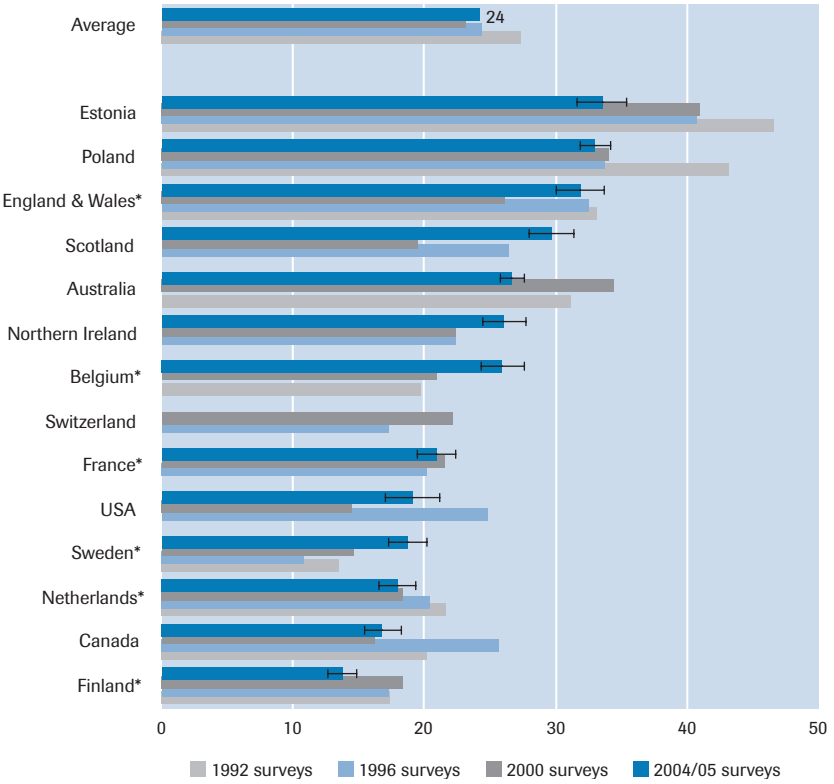
Countries	1989	1992	1996	2000	2004-2005	*Main cities*	2001-2005 surveys
Bulgaria					53	Athens (Greece)	55 *
Greece					42	Istanbul (Turkey)	51
Luxembourg					36 *	Tallinn (Estonia)	49
Japan				22	35 *	Lisbon (Portugal)	49 *
Italy		35			35	Lima (Peru)	48
Mexico					34 *	Madrid (Spain)	47 *
Portugal				27	34	Rome (Italy)	44 *
Estonia		47	41	41	34 *	London (England)	42 *
Poland		43	34	34	33	Warsaw (Poland)	41
Spain					33 *	Budapest (Hungary)	39 *
England & Wales		33	32	26	32 *	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	34
Germany					30 *	Brussels (Belgium)	33 *
New Zealand		38			30	Berlin (Germany)	31 *
Scotland			26	19	30	Dublin (Ireland)	29 *
Ireland					27 *	Sydney (Australia)	27
Australia		31		34	27	Helsinki (Finland)	25 *
Hungary					26 *	Edinburgh (Scotland)	24
Northern Ireland			22	22	26	Paris (France)	22 *
Belgium		20		21	26 *	New York (USA)	22
Switzerland			17	22	.	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	22 *
France			20	22	21 *	Vienna (Austria)	21 *
Austria			20		19 *	Stockholm (Sweden)	21 *
USA			25	14	19	Copenhagen (Denmark)	21 *
Sweden		14	11	15	19 *	Oslo (Norway)	18
Netherlands		22	20	18	18 *	Reykjavik (Iceland)	9
Denmark				17	17 *	Hong Kong (SAR China)	5
Canada		20	26	16	17	Average	32
Norway					14	*Cities in developing countries*	
Finland		17	17	18	14 *	Sao Paulo (Brazil)	72
Iceland					6	Buenos Aires (Argentina)	66
						Maputo (Mozambique)	65
						Johannesburg (RSA)	57
						Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	57
						Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	48
Average		29	24	22	27	Average	61

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

This question about how people feel has typically been shown to paint a different picture of 'fear of crime' to that from questions about perceptions of risk. Typically, women and the elderly emerge as most fearful on this 'street safety' question. This may be because for some people the prospect of being out after dark evokes anxiety about a greater range of mishaps (e.g., accidents as well as crime). Also male respondents might be less inclined to admit feelings of fear or anxiety than females. For cross-country comparisons, though, exactly what the 'street safety' question measures is secondary insofar as it is likely to be similarly interpreted.

Figure 28 **Percentage of population feeling very safe on the street after dark in 2004/05 and results from earlier surveys in countries that participated at least three times. 1992–2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

There are several countries for which trends can be examined since 1992. Figure 28 gives the results.

Trends are not uniform across countries. In most countries the level has remained stable. Estonia, Australia, the USA and Canada are showing decreases. Fear of crime seemed to have gone down during the nineties in Poland but is now back to the level of 1992. In Belgium and Northern Ireland the trend between 2000 and 2004 seems to have gone up.
The ranking of countries is relatively stable over the years. Those in Poland, Italy, Estonia and The United Kingdom consistently show the highest levels of unease, whereas those in Sweden, the Netherlands, Denmark, and Finland show least fear. A Eurobarometer study conducted in 2003 used the same question and showed an identical ranking of the countries (EORG, 2003).

11.4 Relationship with national risks and victimisation experience

As has been the case in previous sweeps of the ICVS, this measure of street safety is not consistently related to levels of contact crime (robbery, sexual incidents, and assaults & threats) (r= -.07; n=28; n.s.). In Portugal, for instance, risks are low, but fear of street crime is much higher than, say, in Sweden where actual national risks of contact crime are greater. One reason for this lack of a relationship between anxiety and risks is that fear of street crime may be influenced by non-conventional forms of crime such as drugs dealing in public or other incivilities. The EU ICS 2005 included a question on personal contacts with drug-related problems such as seeing people dealing drugs, taking or using drugs in public spaces or finding syringes left by drug addicts. These findings were discussed in chapter 6. The correlation coefficient between this variable and feeling unsafe is strong (r=0.79, n=17) (Van Dijk, Manchin, Van Kesteren & Hideg, 2007). The results indicate that in Europe exposure to drug-related problems is a major source of fear of street crime. Relationships between personal contacts with drug-related problems and fear of crime have previously also been found at the level of individuals (Van Dijk, 1996).

12 Security precautions

Since the 1992 ICVS, the questionnaire contains a fairly consistent set of questions on measures taken against household property crime, in particular burglary. In all, eight home security issues were asked for in the 2005 ICVS. For some items, traditional residential differences may play a bigger part than deliberate precautionary behaviour. For instance, very few householders in Denmark, Sweden, and Poland said they had a 'high fence', whereas about a third in the United Kingdom did. Having a caretaker or security guard on the premises was also more common in Belgium, Finland, and France (about 10% mentioned them), but was much less common in many other countries. Special grilles on doors and windows were also asked about, but this too may reflect 'architectural tradition'. They were uncommon for instance in Poland and the Scandinavian countries, whereas they were said to be very common in the United Kingdom. For this reason, we focus on two items to assess the 2005 ICVS results: whether a burglar alarm was installed, and whether special (high-grade) door locks had been installed.

Table 28 shows that on average 16% of households were protected by a burglar alarm. There were above average levels of alarm ownership in New Zealand, England & Wales, Ireland, Northern Ireland, Canada, Norway and the USA. Alarm ownership is still comparatively rare in Bulgaria, Poland, Mexico, Switzerland, Japan, Greece, Denmark, and Estonia (6% or less). At the city level, relatively few inhabitants of cities in developing countries possess burglar alarms.

Nearly half (45%) of households on average said they had special door locks. Percentages were highest in the Netherlands, Australia, Scotland, Germany and the USA[1]. Percentages were lower in cities in developing countries.
It is clear that levels of household security have increased in most countries. Specifically the percentages of households with burglar alarms show upward trends in all countries for which trend data are available, with the possible exception of France. There have been particularly steep increases since 1992 in Canada, USA England & Wales, Australia and Northern Ireland, but also among the countries at the bottom of the scale (Poland, Estonia and Finland).

The proportion of homes with special door locks has also generally increased since 1992, particularly in Estonia, Belgium, Italy, Finland, and the Netherlands. As shown in figure 29, households in countries with comparatively high alarm ownership also ranked comparatively high on special door locks. This is true for New Zealand, Australia, USA, England & Wales, Scotland, Ireland and Northern Ireland. However, the Netherlands and Germany were out of line, having the highest proportion with

1 USA rates are much higher than those found in national surveys.

Table 28 Percentage of households with a burglar alarm to protect against burglary in 2004/05 plus results from earlier surveys in countries and main cities. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1989	1992	1996	2000	2004-2005		*Main cities*	2001-2005	
Ireland					49		Dublin (Ireland)	71	*
England & Wales	24	22	27	34	42	*	Oslo (Norway)	38	
New Zealand		10		.	38		Edinburgh (Scotland)	36	
Northern Ireland	8		11	16	38		Sydney (Australia)	34	
Scotland	20		25	26	33		Belfast (Northern Ireland)	32	
Canada	15	13	20	23	28		London (England)	30	*
Norway	7				28		Stockholm (Sweden)	29	*
USA	16		21	24	28		Rome (Italy)	26	*
Australia	16	14	.	26	27		New York (USA)	25	*
Italy		13			24	*	Athens (Greece)	21	*
Belgium	15	12		21	22	*	Brussels (Belgium)	18	*
Luxembourg					22	*	Budapest (Hungary)	18	*
Sweden		5	7	10	16	*	Lisbon (Portugal)	16	*
France	14		15	13	15	*	Hong Kong (SAR China)	14	
Hungary					15	*	Helsinki (Finland)	13	*
Netherlands	9	8	10	11	15	*	Reykjavik (Iceland)	12	
Portugal				8	14	*	Vienna (Austria)	12	*
Greece					14	*	Berlin (Germany)	11	*
Germany	10				14	*	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	11	*
Austria			6		14	*	Tallinn (Estonia)	11	
Denmark				7	9	*	Madrid (Spain)	9	*
Iceland					9		Istanbul (Turkey)	7	
Finland	2	1	2	4	9	*	Copenhagen (Denmark)	6	*
Spain	4				8	*	Paris (France)	6	*
Estonia		3	3	4	6		Warsaw (Poland)	5	
Japan				3	6		Average	20	
Mexico					5	*	*Cities in developing countries*		
Switzerland	6	.	5				Buenos Aires (Argentina)	12	
Poland		1	1	2	3		Johannesburg (RSA)	10	
Bulgaria					3		Lima (Peru)	5	
							Sao Paulo (Brazil)	5	
							Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	3	
							Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	1	
							Maputo (Mozambique)	1	
Average**	12	9	12	14	16		Average	5	

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

The figures given in tables 28 and 29 are often high. It cannot be ruled out that some people claimed they had such security measures on account of residual mistrust about the credentials of the survey, or at least a wariness about admitting to unknown interviewers that their homes were vulnerable.

Table 29 Percentage of households with special door locks to protect against burglary in 2004/05 plus results from earlier surveys in countries and main cities. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1992	1996	2000	2004-2005	*Main cities*	2001-2005
Netherlands	59	68	70	72	Sydney (Australia)	78
Australia	60		67	67 *	Budapest (Hungary)	72 *
Scotland		62	65	65	Oslo (Norway)	72
Germany				61 *	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	72 *
England & Wales	68	68	69	60 *	Vienna (Austria)	67 *
USA		58	53	60	Athens (Greece)	67 *
New Zealand	43			59	Dublin (Ireland)	65 *
Northern Ireland		35	40	56	Rome (Italy)	64 *
Austria		37		56 *	Edinburgh (Scotland)	63
Hungary				55 *	Berlin (Germany)	62 *
Ireland				54 *	Tallinn (Estonia)	62
Italy	36			52 *	New York (USA)	62
Luxembourg				50 *	London (England)	60 *
Portugal			36	49 *	Stockholm (Sweden)	60 *
Canada	42	52	53	48	Lisbon (Portugal)	57 *
Spain	.			45 *	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	55
Belgium	25		50	45 *	Madrid (Spain)	53 *
Sweden	44	38	43	44 *	Helsinki (Finland)	47 *
Greece				44 *	Paris (France)	46 *
Estonia	10	18	23	40	Warsaw (Poland)	46
Norway				37	Istanbul (Turkey)	44
France		34	40	34	Copenhagen (Denmark)	42 *
Denmark			21	31 *	Brussels (Belgium)	36 *
Finland	20		37	29 *	Hong Kong (SAR China)	25
Switzerland		29		*	Reykjavik (Iceland)	13
Bulgaria				20	Average	56
Mexico				19	*Cities in developing countries*	
Poland	15	15	17	18	Johannesburg (RSA)	28
Japan			10	15	Buenos Aires (Argentina)	26
Iceland				11	Lima (Peru)	23
					Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	17
					Sao Paulo (Brazil)	16
					Maputo (Mozambique)	14
Average**	38	43	43	45	Average	47

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

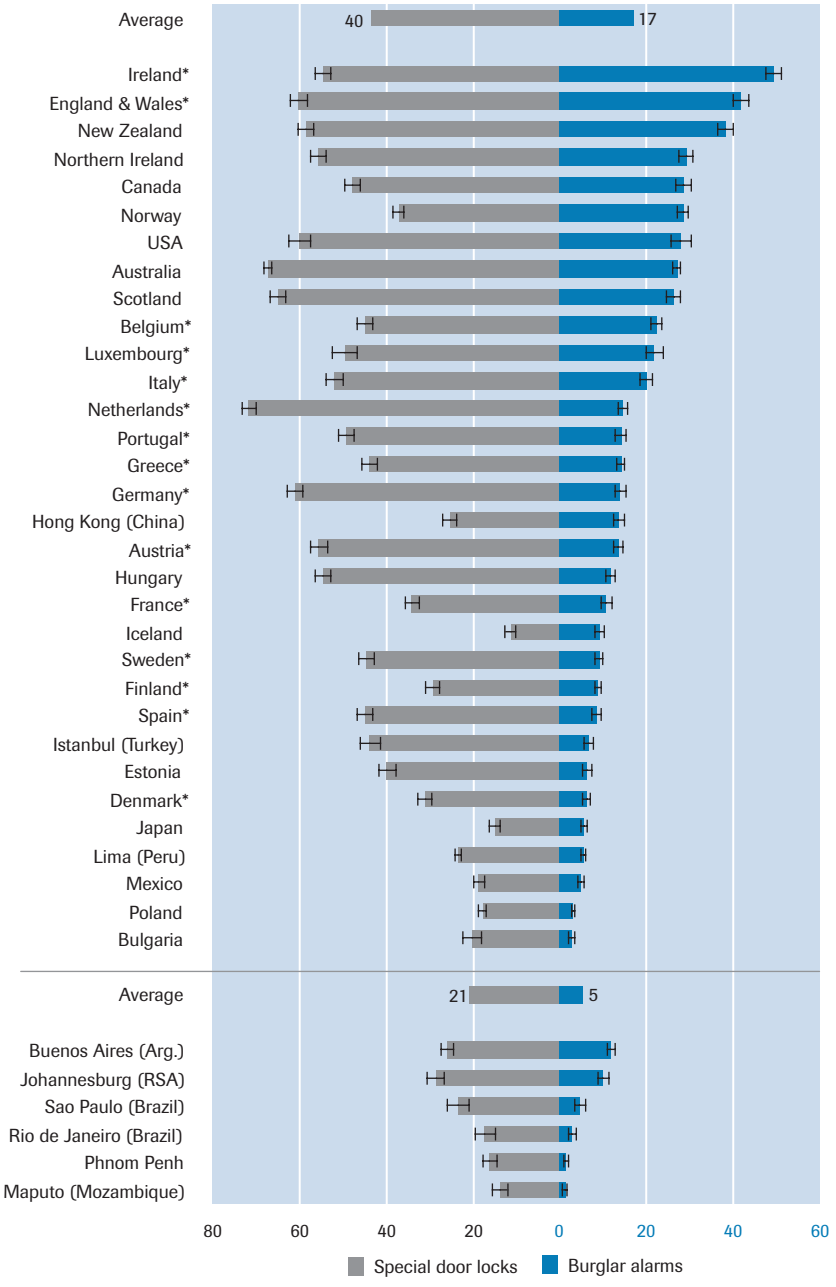
special door locks, but a below average figure for alarms. Rates of home security are medium high in Argentina and South Africa. Home owners in other developing countries are less likely to install either alarms or special locks. Homes are least protected in Iceland and Japan.

Relationship between risks and victimisation experience
As has been the case in previous ICVS sweeps, levels of precaution at the national level were positively related to national burglary risks: i.e., people in countries with higher burglary levels were generally more likely to have alarms and special locks. The main differences were that Denmark and Poland fared fairly low in terms of precautions taken, although burglary risks were comparatively high.

Individual households purchase special security as a measure of self-protection. Better protected households expect their risks of victimisation to be reduced. To look at current levels of household protection in terms of victimisation experience would, however, be misleading, because victims are likely to improve their protection directly as a response to having been burgled. Rather, one needs to take into account what level of security was in place at the time of a burglary. In selected countries a set of questions in the 1996 ICVS (not repeated thereafter) addressed this in relation to burglary alarms. For those with alarms installed at the time of the offence, 1.1% had a burglar enter the house, as against 1.8% of those without alarms – a statistically robust difference. For attempted burglaries, the picture was different. The level of risk for those with alarms at the time of an attempt was higher (2.1%) than for those without alarms (1.8%). This was taken to suggest that homes with alarms were likely to be more attractive targets, and thus targeted more often on that account. However, the figures also show that entry is more often thwarted. For those with an alarm at the time of the offence, entry was achieved in 35% of incidents, whereas for those without alarms the figures were higher, at 50% (Mayhew and Van Dijk, 1992). A similar relationship between countries with the highest security levels having a higher proportion of attempted burglaries was reported in Van Dijk, Mayhew and Killias (1990).

In developed countries levels of household security have gone up to the point where the majority of households are protected by either special locks or alarms or both. Especially in countries where burglary rates used to be comparatively high, security has gone up significantly. Although households install protection to reduce their individual victimisation risks, a rise in collective levels of protection may well have spin-off effects to the level of communities or cities. Recent decreases in burglary rates at the country level may be the result of significant improvements in collective levels of security over the past 15 years.

Figure 29 **Percentage of households with burglar alarms and special door locks to protect against burglary in 2004/05 in countries and main cities. 2002-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

13 Public attitudes to law enforcement

13.1 General attitudes to the police

All respondents were asked to give a judgment on the overall performance of the police. The question asked was:

> *'Taking everything into account, how good a job do you think the police do in your area in controlling crime? Do you think they do a very good job, a fairly good job, a poor job or a very poor job?'*

Answers to this question were found to be strongly correlated to those to a question about the helpfulness of the police (Van Kesteren, Mayhew, Nieuwberta, 2000). To reduce the length of the questionnaire only the question about overall performance was retained.

On average 70% of the general public in the participating countries is satisfied with the performance of their local police. The public in cities in developing countries is less often satisfied (42%). The most satisfied were those in Hong Kong (SAR China), Finland, USA, Canada, New Zealand, Australia, Denmark, and Austria where nine or eight out of ten thought the police performed well. The poorest judgments of police performance were expressed in Rio de Janeiro and Sao Paulo, Buenos Aires, Poland, Mexico, Estonia, Bulgaria, Greece, Spain and France. Table 30 shows details.

In most countries the level of appreciation has remained stable or has increased over the years. The most prominent improvements since 1988 or 1992 were in Finland, Belgium, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Portugal and Austria. This more favourable judgment on police effectiveness might be related to recent drops in crime and less concern about burglary. Improvements in actual and perceived public safety are probably credited to the police. Assessment of police performance mirrors the curvilinear trends in levels of common crime. Peaks in levels of crime and fear of crime in the 1990s went together with low opinions of the police. Opinions of the police have now improved in response to decreasing crime rates. In many countries opinions are now even better than in 1988. Secondly, and closely related to the above point, the rank order position of countries participating in more sweeps has not changed much over time.

13.2 An ICVS based index of police performance

The ICVS provides three measures of the quality of public relations of police forces. The first measure is the reporting rate of recent crime victims: percentages of those victimised by crime who report their victimisation experience to their local police. The reporting rate is an

Table 30 **Percentage of the public who believe police are doing a good job or a very good job in controlling crime in the local area in 2004/2005 and results from earlier surveys in countries and main cities. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

Country	1989	1992	1996	2000	2004-2005	
Hong Kong (SAR China)					94	
Finland	64	53	55	70	89	*
USA	80	.	77	89	88	
Canada	89	82	80	87	86	
New Zealand		79			84	
Australia	73	72		76	82	
Denmark				71	82	*
Austria			54	.	81	*
Scotland	71		69	77	79	
Ireland	.				78	*
England & Wales	70	66	68	72	75	*
Germany	67				74	*
Norway	70				73	
Belgium	53	47		64	71	*
Hungary					70	*
Netherlands	58	50	45	52	70	*
Northern Ireland	63		63	67	70	
Switzerland	50		55	67	69	
Portugal				45	67	*
Italy		50			65	*
Sweden		58	61	61	65	*
Luxembourg					62	*
France	62		56	65	60	*
Spain	53				58	*
Greece					57	*
Bulgaria					53	*
Estonia		15	16	31	47	
Mexico					44	
Poland		37	27	46	41	
Average**	66	55	56	65	70	
Cities in developing countries						
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)					65	
Buenos Aires (Argentina)					37	
Sao Paulo (Brazil)					36	
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)					29	
Average					42	

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

objective, behavioural measure of public confidence in the police. The ICVS also asks reporting victims about their treatment by the police. And, finally, all respondents are asked to rate the police's general effectiveness

in controlling crime. The latter two measures refer to subjective opinions of police performance.

These three indicators of police performance were found to be highly interrelated. In countries where fewer victims report to the police, opinions of victims about their treatment by the police are less favourable, as is the general opinion about police effectiveness. An ICVS based index was therefore constructed based on the three indicators together, the perception of police performance index[1]. Table 31 shows scores of countries on this ICVS-based composite index of police performance.

Table 31 Country ratings on ICVS-based Police Performance Index for 2004/05 and results from earlier surveys in countries and main cities. The index is based on reporting 5 crimes to the police, satisfaction with reporting 5 crimes to the police and general satisfaction with the police controlling crime in the local area. 1996-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1996	2000	2004-2005
Denmark		97	100 *
Austria			99 *
Scotland	98	98	94
Switzerland	71	80	93
Belgium		77	92 *
New Zealand			90
Finland	75	77	89 *
Germany			88 *
Australia		88	84
England & Wales	94	90	82 *
Sweden	83	80	81 *
United Kingdom	96	95	79 *
Canada	92	87	76
Northern Ireland	66	85	74
Netherlands	70	78	73 *
Ireland			73 *
USA	85	86	72
Norway			70
Hong Kong (SAR China)			69
Hungary			68 *
Luxembourg			67 *

1 Computing the index: Each survey is treated as a separate observation, there are 37 countries (30 countries plus 7 cities) but a large number of them have participated in 1996 and 2000 as well, this results in 56 observations. Data from the first two sweeps are not used because not all three variables were asked then. Percentile score are computed for each survey on each of the three variables, the average is computes and expressed in percentiles. Half of this percentile plus 50 is the index. This results in a scale from 50 to 100. The scale starts at 50 to avoid that countries would get a score near zero. See also appendix 9.4, table 19.

Table 31 (Continued)

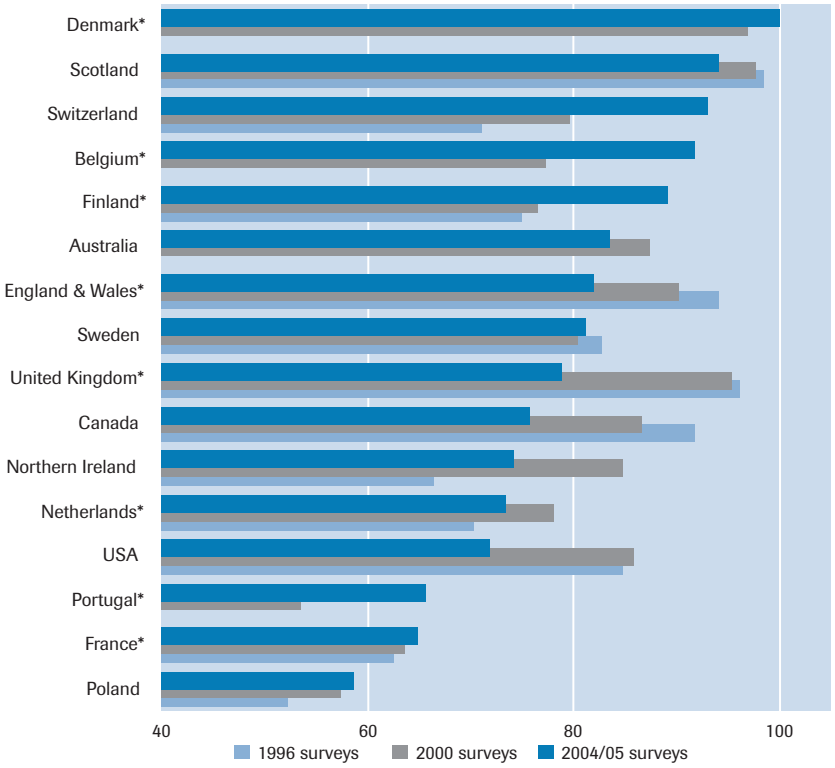
Countries	1996	2000	2004-2005
Portugal		54	66 *
France	63	64	65 *
Spain			64 *
Italy			62 *
Japan		61	
Greece			59 *
Poland	52	57	59
Bulgaria			57
Istanbul (Turkey)			55
Estonia			55
Mexico			52
Average			75
Cities in developing countries			
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)			60
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)			56
Buenos Aires (Argentina)			54
Sao Paulo (Brazil)			51
Average			61

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

Country scores on the police performance index are least favourable for Brazil, Mexico, Argentina, Estonia, Turkey, Cambodia, Greece and Poland. Countries for which historical data are available show mostly stable ratings. However, in Austria, Switzerland and Portugal police performance scores have improved relative to those of other countries. In the United Kingdom (England & Wales, Northern Ireland), Canada and the USA ratings seem to have fallen (see also figure 30).

Countries with the best perceived performing police forces are found in North-West Europe and Australia, namely Austria, Denmark, Scotland, Switzerland, Belgium, New Zealand, Finland, Australia, Germany, Sweden and England & Wales.

Figure 30 **Trends in ICVS-based Police Performance Index for 2004/05 and results from earlier surveys in countries. 1996-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

14 Public opinion and punishment

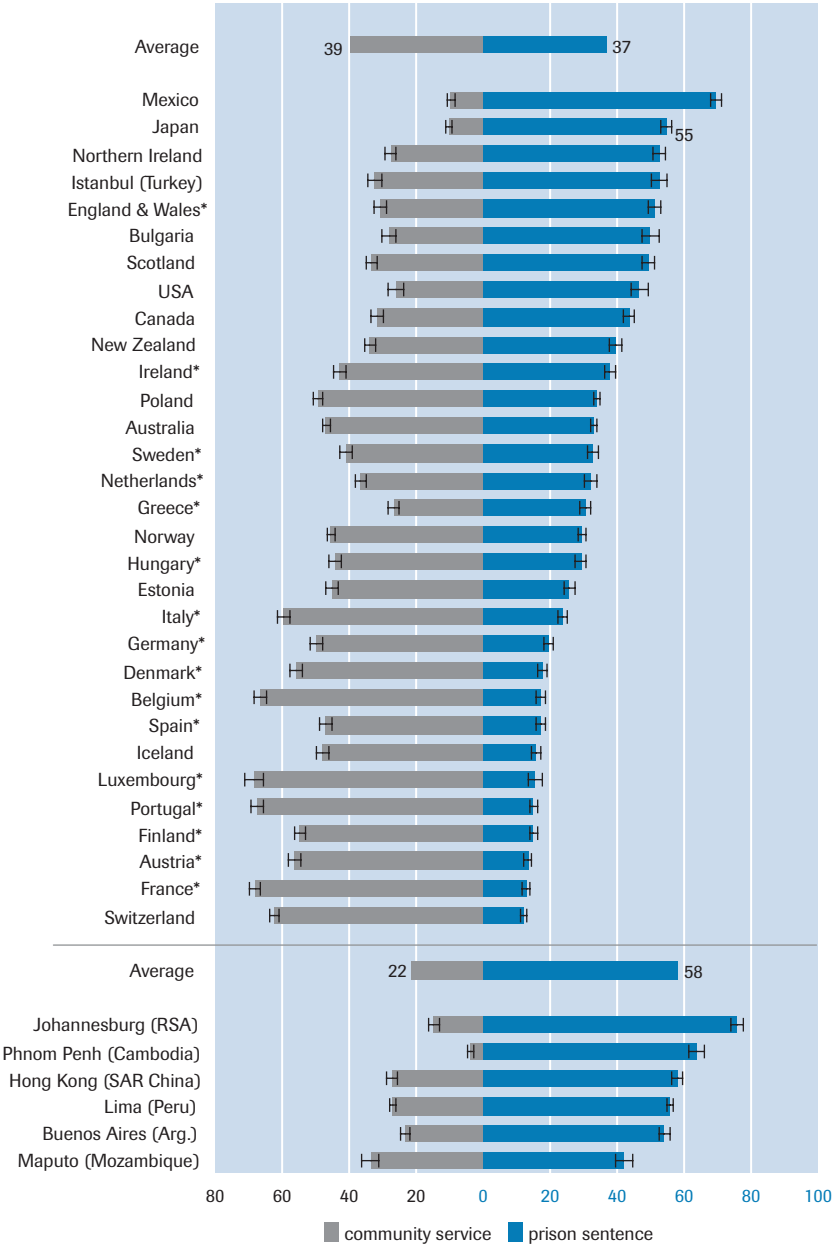
The ICVS asked respondents what sentence they considered most appropriate for a recidivist burglar – a man aged 21 who is found guilty of burglary for the second time, having stolen a colour television. Figure 31 shows percentages opting for imprisonment and community service orders respectively in the ICVS 2005. Comparing the national and main city results shows that there is no distinct 'city' effect. Therefore we present the national data and the main cities from countries from which no national data are available in single graphs and tables. The national and main city results are in the appendix 9.3, table 16 and 17.

Community service order was the preferred sentence for 48% of respondents in 2005. Imprisonment was recommended by 38% of respondents overall. Developed and developing countries show distinctly different preferences. Public opinion in developed countries is equally divided between the two sentencing options: 39% opts for community service and 37% for imprisonment. The public in developing countries favours imprisonment by a large majority (58% against 22% for community service).

Imprisonment was the first choice in all developing countries, including Mexico. One reason for this preference may have been that community service orders are not existent or rarely applied. Imprisonment was also the first choice in most of the countries that practice a common law system countries, Ireland being the exception. Imprisonment is also favourite in the Far East (Japan and Hong Kong). Community service is the preferred sentence in all continental, West European countries but Greece.

Table 32 shows percentages of the public favouring imprisonment per country. There was wide divergence across countries. Over 50% favoured imprisonment in Johannesburg (76%), Mexico, Hong Kong, Lima, Japan, Northern Ireland and Istanbul. The population of France (13%) and Austria (13%) are least in favour of imprisonment. Leaving aside changes in relative levels of support for different sentencing options, the 2000 ICVS sweep showed a general hardening of attitudes towards punishment. This trend has not continued thereafter. In many countries support for imprisonment has remained stable. Lower percentages are favouring imprisonment in 2005 than in 2000/1996 in the USA, Australia, the Netherlands, Belgium, Finland and Estonia. Between 2000 and 2005 the upward trend in support for imprisonment seems to have reached a plateau in most countries. Poland displayed a significant drop during the 1990s but an increase thereafter. The percentage of Poles favouring imprisonment is back at the level of 1990.

Figure 31 **Percentage of the public opting for community service order and imprisonment as punishment for recidivist burglar in 2004/05 in countries and main cities. 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***



* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

Table 32 Percentage of the public opting for imprisonment as punishment for recidivist burglar in 2004/05 plus results from earlier surveys in countries and main cities. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Countries	1989	1992	1996	2000	2004-2005	
Mexico					70	
Hong Kong (SAR China)					58	
Japan				51	55	
Northern Ireland	45		49	54	53	
Istanbul (Turkey)					53	
England & Wales	38	37	49	51	51	*
Bulgaria					50	
Scotland	39		48	52	49	
USA	53		56	56	47	
Canada	32	39	43	45	44	
New Zealand		26			40	
Ireland					38	*
Poland		31	17	21	34	
Australia	36	34	.	37	33	
Sweden		26	22	31	33	*
Netherlands	26	26	31	37	32	*
Greece					30	*
Norway	14				29	
Hungary					29	*
Estonia		43	39	24	26	
Italy		22			24	*
Germany	13				19	*
Denmark				20	18	*
Belgium	26	19		21	17	*
Spain	27				17	*
Iceland					16	
Luxembourg					16	*
Portugal				26	15	*
Finland	15	14	18	19	15	*
Austria			10		13	*
France	13		11	12	13	*
Switzerland	9		9		12	
Average**	28	29	31	35	33	
Cities in developing countries						
Johannesburg (RSA)					76	
Lima (Peru)					56	
Maputo (Mozambique)					42	
Average**					58	

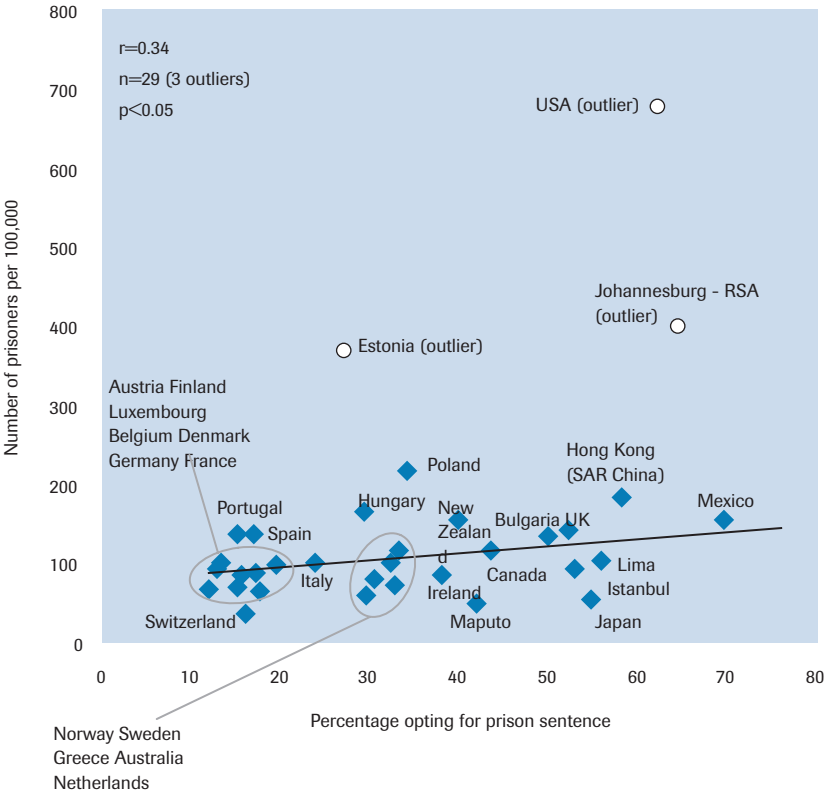
* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The average is based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

*** The Polish questionnaire also had the option 'labour camp' (23%), these responses are counted as 'prison sentence' for international comparison.

A community service order was seen as the most appropriate sentence overall in 16 countries providing results in the 2005 ICVS. It was the first choice of sentence in half of the countries, with particularly strong support in Luxembourg, France and Portugal (69% opting for it) and Belgium (67%)[1]. There was, however, a fairly wide divergence of opinion: a community sentence was seen as most appropriate by less than 30% in the UK.

Figure 32 **Percentage of the public opting for imprisonment as punishment for recidivist burglar in 2004/05 and the number of prisoners per 100,000 population. 2002-2005 ICVS, 2005 EU ICS and UK Home Office 2003 World Prison Population Rate**



Community service shows some shifts over time. For instance, the Netherlands in 2000 was less in favour of a community sentence than it was in

1 The percentage opting for a community service order in Finland increased markedly after 1989, when they were introduced in Finland, suggesting that formal sentencing change can increase support for alternatives to imprisonment. Support has fallen back somewhat since 1992, although it is still higher than in 1989.

1989. In contrast, there was more support in Belgium and Finland in 2000 than in 1989. Between the 1996, 2000 and 2005 ICVS sweeps, though, there was little change.

Public opinion and actual sentencing
Figure 32 shows the relationship between public attitudes towards sentencing and prisoners rates per 100,000 in 2002/2003. In the Western world, the countries where the public clearly favours imprisonment, such as the USA and the UK, tend to have comparatively higher prisoners rates (Van Dijk, 2007).

Among the participating countries, there is a weak but statistically significant relationship between public opinion on sentencing and the actual level of prisoners rates ($r=0.34$, $n=29$, $p<0.05$). The USA, Estonia and Johannesburg are treated as outliers in this correlation, the prison rates are far above the rate to be expected considering public attitudes to punishment. Public attitudes in the USA about the appropriate sentence for a recidivist burglar are within the European range (with a percentage opting for imprisonment lower than in the UK). Japan stands out as a country where the actual number of prisoners is lower than is to be expected considering public opinion.

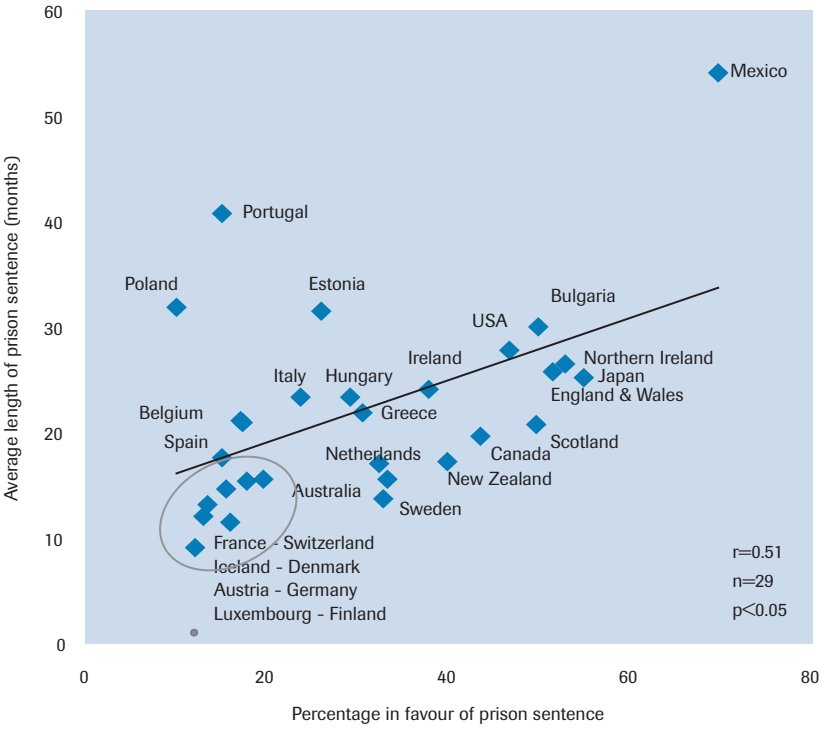
Within the EU context, the three new member countries, Hungary, and especially Poland and Estonia, stand out with prisoner rates far above the EU average while public attitudes in these countries are only slightly above the middle range. In these countries public attitudes have shifted over the past ten years away from imprisonment towards community service orders (with Poland reverting the trend recently). Public opinion in these countries is now broadly in line with the EU majority point of view. Actual sentencing is still comparatively punitive.

Duration of imprisonment
Respondents who opted for a prison sentence were asked how long this sentence should be. The length of sentence recommended is correlated to the rate of respondents per country who opt for a prison sentence: at the country level a more punitive attitude also translates into longer sentences. Based on the 30 national surveys in the 2004/05 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS, the correlation is 0.49 and statistically significant. Figure 33 shows this relation.

Inhabitants of Mexico are by far the most punitive on both dimensions. Other countries with high scores on both imprisonment and length of prison sentences are Bulgaria, the USA, England & Wales, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Japan.
The two outliers in the scatter plot are Poland and Estonia. Relatively few respondents in these countries favour imprisonment but those who prefer

imprisonment opt for relatively long prison sentences. This result must be interpreted against the background of declining numbers of people in favour of imprisonment in these countries. If numbers of citizens favouring imprisonment go down, those that have changed their opinion against imprisonment are likely to have previously been in favour of short rather than long prison sentences. This factor may lead to an increase of the mean of recommended prison length. Such increases in the average length of recommended prison sentence have been observed in Poland, Estonia, Finland and Belgium, all countries where support for imprisonment has gone down significantly. In other countries, however, both the proportion of supporters of imprisonment and the recommended length of prison sentences has gone down. This is notably the case in the USA where support for imprisonment went down from 53% in 1989 to 47% in 2004/2005 and the recommended length of prison sentences from 37 months in 1989 to 28 months in 2004/2005. If both measures are taken, together the USA public has become markedly less punitive over the past two decades, especially since 2000.

Figure 33 **Plot of the percentage of the population opting for a prison sentence against the duration of that prison sentence by country. 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS**



The Eastern Central European countries are in favour of comparatively long sentences of around 2.5 years. A distinct group of countries are those practicing the common law system. In a global perspective, citizens of common law countries combine a preference for imprisonment over other sentences and for long prison sentences over short ones. Australia and New Zealand are the least punitive of this group. Inhabitants of other Western European countries tend to be less in favour of prison sentence and recommended prison sentences are relatively mild. They vary between 9 months in Switzerland, 11 months in Sweden and Iceland to 2 years in Italy and Belgium. France and Switzerland stand out with consistently low percentages favouring imprisonment (13% and 12% respectively) and relatively short recommended prison sentences (12 months and 9 months respectively).

15 Twenty years of comparative crime victim surveying

15.1 Background and methodology

In 1987 the initiative was taken by a group of European criminologists involved in national crime surveys, to launch a fully standardised survey to further comparative criminological research.
This was informed by two sets of considerations. The first was that comparisons of results of the first independently mounted national surveys such as those of the USA, the Netherlands and England & Wales had proven to be virtually impossible due to differences in questionnaires, sampling, methods of interviews, classifying offences etcetera (Block, 1984; Mayhew, 1987). Even in cases where data could be accessed and manipulated post hoc to improve consistency, many problems proved to be insurmountable. To name just one example: minor differences in the handling of attempted burglaries proved to make comparisons between American and British burglary rates virtually impossible. The conclusion was drawn that crime surveying requires standardisation in all stages of the research project and that harmonisation of data cannot be achieved ex post facto. The second consideration was that new techniques of data collection such as random digit dialling and computer-assisted telephone interviewing (CATI) had both significantly enhanced capacities to standardise data collection across countries and, equally important, significantly reduced costs. Reduced costs supports the execution of standardised comparative surveys that complement existing large scale nation-specific surveys such as those in the USA, the Netherlands, Finland, Switzerland, England & Wales Australia, France, Italy and Canada. From the outset the ICVS was designed with the objective to make broad comparisons across countries rather than to provide precise level estimates of individual countries of a large set of specifically described types of crime. This philosophy explains the use of relatively modest sample sizes (2,000 per country in developed countries) and a trimmed down questionnaire listing broad categories of prevalent crime.

American crime survey expert J. Lynch was commissioned to carry out a critical review of attempts to compare victimisation rates across countries. He concludes that, although nation-specific surveys produce higher-quality data on individual nations, the ICVS provides better comparable data across countries (Lynch, 2007). Two decades of experience have indeed proved the technical viability and financial sustainability of the approach. With selfconsciously standardised crime surveys, statistically significant differences in levels of victimisation by broad categories of crime of countries or cities can be identified, even when sample sizes are kept relatively small. The ICVS experience has also shown that repeating nearly identical surveys over a longer time period allows the identification of statistically significant trends in victimisation and in attitudes towards crime, policing and sentencing and on the use of crime prevention meas-

ures and reception and need of victim support. The availability of historical data on these dimensions, spanning two decades, has greatly enhanced the value of comparative crime victim surveys for understanding trends in crime and crime-related issues in an international perspective.

Having said this, the limitations and the vulnerability of the ICVS must also be stressed. Firstly, it should be noted that the ICVS does not cover all crimes. For practical reasons only 10 crime types are inquired after, although these 10 crimes cover a large proportion of the crimes that are experienced by victims in households. Furthermore, with an instrument like the ICVS it is impossible to measure so-called 'victimless' crimes. This means that crime types like drug crimes, many types of white collar crimes, driving under influence, illegal weapon possession, possession of child pornography etcetera are not covered. And also crimes where the victim is not a person in a household but a company fall outside the scope of the ICVS. Nevertheless, the majority of crimes committed are the volume crimes experienced by victims and the bulk of these are measured by the ICVS.

Secondly, small sample sizes produce relatively large sampling error and 'freak' results in individual surveys cannot be altogether excluded. For this reason, results must always be interpreted with due caution, even to the extent that strikingly unexpected findings should ideally be checked against results of nation-specific surveys[1].

The project faces several other technical challenges that are common to all major crime surveys. One of the technical concerns is the impact of different techniques of interviewing and under- or overrepresentation of sub groups of the population due to under coverage in the sample and/or non-responding of respondents. In chapter 1 a succinct overview was given of the available evidence on these recurrent concerns regarding crime surveys.

1 Such external validation of ICVS results seems especially relevant concerning change estimates since these should be less affected by differences in methodology than level estimates. In the 2004/2005 round of the ICVS, for example, the Netherlands and England & Wales stood apart with increasing levels of violent crime. This striking finding was corroborated by the results of national victim surveys with larger samples. If other sources would have indicated a decreasing trend, this would have raised the possibility that the ICVS results were influenced by sampling error. Across the board results of the ICVS are congruent with results of national surveys but there are exceptions. For example, the ICVS 2004 shows a stabilization of burglary rates in England/Wales where the BCS shows a continued decline. The ICVS 2004/05 points at a substantial increase in the level of over all victimisation in Northern Ireland. Results of the national crime surveys of Northern Ireland confirm a rise between 2000 and 2003/2004 but of a much smaller magnitude.
The BCS (Allen, 2006) indicates stable burglary rates between 2000 and 2003 and a 10% decrease in 2004/2005. The difference between ICVS-based and BCS-based change estimates may be due to sampling error but can also have been caused by a fundamental redesign of the BCS methodology that was introduced in 2004. Both the ICVS and BCS indicate that burglary rates in England & Wales have decreased most markedly between 1995 and 2000 and less steeply thereafter.
This report shows a large drop in crime in Spain compared to the 1989 survey. Recorded crime levels are now at the low end in Europe (European Sourcebook 2006) and this survey shows an increase in reporting rate compared to 1989. This is consistent with the drop in crime reported here.

For reasons of cost effectiveness the ICVS is conducted by computer-assisted telephone interviewing where possible. In developing and transitional countries interviews are done face-to-face. The research on the impact of methods of interviewing such as CATI or face-to-face on level estimates of victimisation is still ongoing but does not point at the superiority of one mode over others in producing reported victimisation. Key to the production of reported victimisation seems to be the supervision and quality of the interviewers rather than the mode of interviewing. The execution of large scale surveys requires permanent innovation.

As all ongoing crime surveys, the ICVS faced newly emerging technical problems in each of its waves. In the first wave telephone coverage was still divergent across Western Europe with a coverage in some countries below 70%. For this reason the survey was conducted with face-to-face interviewing in Spain and Northern Ireland and with a combination of CATI and CAPI in Slovenia. Also in the first sweep response rates in some countries were relatively low, partly because of privacy protection rules prohibiting sufficient re-contacting of non-respondents. In the subsequent sweeps re-contacting became a standard feature and response rates have gone up across countries. In the 2004/2005 sweep response rates have again declined, reflecting a trend generally found in telephone based survey research. It is uncertain whether or to which extent this fluctuation has affected victimisation rates but there is ground for optimism. In the European component of the fifth ICVS in up to seven times respondents were called again. A special analysis demonstrated that the number of calls had had no effect on the number of victimisation incidents reported (persons reached after many redials did not show other response patterns on victimisation than those contacted in the first instance). This finding goes some way in allaying concerns that reduced response rates due to survey fatigue have introduced a bias in the sample reducing estimated victimisation experiences, e.g. by over sampling those 'eager to talk' about such experiences. Although the declining trend in response rates is problematic and may soon require changes in interview techniques, it may not have had much impact on the ICVS results so far.

In recent years the coverage of landline phones declined as a result of increases in the proportion of people who exclusively own and use mobile phones. The increasing proportion of mobile only users in some countries has raised concerns about the representativeness of samples of landline phone numbers based on the random digit dialling. Results of a special pilot study among mobile only users conducted in Finland in the framework of the EU ICS 2005 showed that mobile only users differ significantly from the general population but not to the extent that victimisation rates cannot be reliably estimated through re-weighting of data collected among users of landlines. The inclusion in the Finnish dataset of data

collected among mobile-only users did not result in different victimisation rates for Finland than those found before.

15.2 Levels of volume crime in a global context

The results of the ICVS 2005 show that on average 15.7% of citizens suffered at least one form of victimisation in the year preceding the interview. Of people who lived in main cities 21.7% was victimised. The countries with the highest prevalence rates for conventional crime are Ireland, England & Wales, New Zealand and Iceland. Contrary to common perception, overall rates of volume crime – such as burglary, robbery and assault & threats – are not higher in the USA than in most parts of Western Europe. In fact USA rates are significantly lower than those of, for example, Ireland and England & Wales. Robberies and attacks in the USA are more often gun-related than in Europe though. The overall rates of Canada and Australia are somewhat below the mean of the European Union and in the same range as those of the USA. Switzerland, although much less so than in the first rounds of the ICVS, still emerges as a country with comparatively low victimisation rates. Countries with the lowest rates form a fairly mixed group with a strong representation of Southern and Eastern Europe besides Japan and Hong Kong.

In the 2004/2005 sweep, victimisation rates were calculated for main cities of developed countries for the first time, based on booster samples of 800 respondents per city. The results show that victimisation rates of cities are consistently higher than the national rates and that their relative positions by and large mirror the relative positions of the country rates. One of the highest victimisation rates is shown by London, for example. The availability of main city rates from developed countries has enhanced the comparability of victimisation rates of both developed and developing countries since in developing countries the ICVS is mainly carried out in main cities only. The ICVS 2004/2005 includes main city rates from several developing countries. City rates per type of crime show huge variation across the world. Robbery in Latin America and Africa, for example, was five times higher than in cities in Western Europe, North America and Australia. Noteworthy are the comparatively high rates for gun-related robberies and assaults and threats in many cities from developing countries. For developed countries the benchmarking of victimisation rates of both developed and developing countries may perhaps be less pertinent. For the purpose of theory formation in criminology, it is vital to enlarge the range of countries from where ICVS data are available, even if such extension would mean that the degree of standardisation is somewhat reduced initially. With the growth of commercially motivated survey

research in developing and transitional countries prospects for a better coverage of ICVS are steadily improving.

15.3 Future research

The conduct of international comparative crime surveys will continue to face funding challenges as well as ever changing methodological challenges of survey research, including the increased use of mobile phones. The use of internet-based interviewing, currently still in an experimental stage, seems an option worth exploring, especially for crime surveying on a global scale. Discussions on the planning and coordination of future comparative crime surveys are ongoing in various fora including the European Union. The authors would like to argue for presevation of the comparability of results with the existing, historical ICVS datasets covering both European countries and countries from other world regions. In such scenario, the ICVS would remain a powerful resource for understanding trends in crime and crime control in a rapidly globalizing world.

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Appendices

Appendix 1
Authors and institutions behind the ICVS

Jan van Dijk was one of the founders of the ICVS in 1987. He is former director of the Research and Documentation Centre /WODC of the Dutch Ministry of Justice and former professor of Criminology at Leiden University. He served as officer in charge of the Human Security Branch of the UNODC in Vienna. His last position at the United Nations was research director of UNICRI. In 2005 he accepted the position of Pieter Van Vollenhoven professor of Victimology and Human Security at INTERVICT, Tilburg University, the Netherlands.

John van Kesteren has been chief analyst of the ICVS and responsible for its integrated databases since 1990. His career in criminology and victimology started at the Dutch Ministry of Justice and he has since worked on the ICVS at Leiden University, UNICRI in Turin and since 2004 at INTERVICT, Tilburg University.

Paul Smit is affiliated with the Research and Documentation Centre of the Dutch Ministry of Justice (WODC). He is one of the team members that did groundbreaking work in harmonising official European crime statistics published in several editions of the European Sourcebooks.

A major contribution to data validation and management for the last survey has been done by Mariska Brouwers from the WODC in The Hague and Sami Nevala from HEUNI in Helsinki, he is currenly with the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights.

Institutions

UNICRI: The United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute, based in Turin, Italy, has been involved with the ICVS since 1990. In particular, UNICRI took the initiative to expand the ICVS to Eastern Central Europe and developing countries in 1992. This work was primarily financed by the Dutch Ministries of Justice (WODC) and Foreign Aid. UNICRI was also part of the EU ICS consortium.

UNODC: The Vienna-based United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime promotes internationally comparable victim surveys in developing countries within and beyond the context of the ICVS, with the aim of encouraging and helping governments make surveys an integral part of their national statistics programme.

WODC: The WODC of the Dutch Ministry of Justice was an important financial contributor to the ICVS in the first four rounds of surveys. Over the years the WODC has co-funded the overhead of the project in industrialised countries and was an important financier of the ICVS at UNICRI.

WODC produced all key reports on the ICVS in industrialised countries as well as this report.

Gallup Europe was leading the EU ICS consortium that organised the 2004/05 surveys in 15 EU member states. The results from these countries are fully integrated in this report. A report on the EU ICS findings was published in 2007 on the consortium's website, *The Burden of Crime in the European Union*, by Jan van Dijk and John van Kesteren, at the time of writing affiliated with UNICRI and Robert Manchin and Gegerly Hideg of Gallup Europe.

INTERVICT (The International Victimology Institute Tilburg of Tilburg University) promotes and executes interdisciplinary research that can contribute to the empowerment and support of victims of crime and abuse of power. The institute was responsible for the final data validation, compilation of database, data analysis and co-drafting of this report.

Appendix 2
List of tables and graphs

Appendix 3
Coverage of the fifth sweep of surveys

Participating countries in the last sweep, year of the survey, available capital (or main) city, sample size and response rate

Country	Year of the survey	Sample size (national)	Capital (main) city	Sample size (main city)	Response rate (national and/or city)
Argentina	2004		Buenos Aires	2126	58
Australia	2004	7001	Sydney	1491	55
Austria*	2005	2004	Vienna	1133 **	46
Belgium*	2005	2014	Brussels	879 **	55
Brazil	2002		Rio de Janeiro	700	na
Brazil	2002		Sao Paulo	700	na
Bulgaria	2004	1100			83
Cambodia	2001		Phnom Penh	1245	96
Canada	2004	2000			62
Denmark*	2005	1984	Copenhagen	1053 **	44
England & Wales***	2005	1775	London	874 **	43
Estonia	2004	1678	Tallinn	489	52
Finland*	2005	2500	Helsinki	902 **	57
France*	2005	2016	Paris	730 **	47
Germany*	2005	2025	Berlin	815 **	43
Greece*	2005	2020	Athens	1073 **	44
Hungary*	2005	2103	Budapest	1105 **	53
Hong Kong (SAR China)	2005		Hong Kong	2283	49
Iceland	2005	1909	Reykjavik	717	67
Ireland*	2005	2003	Dublin	1156 **	42
Italy*	2005	2023	Rome	858	54
Japan	2004	2086			70
Luxembourg*	2005	800			36
Mexico	2004	2116			na
Mozambique	2002		Maputo	993	na
Netherlands*	2005	2010	Amsterdam	772 **	46
New Zealand	2004	2000			49
Northern Ireland	2005	2002	Belfast	965 **	41
Norway	2004	3996			33
Peru	2005		Lima	7001	>95
Poland	2004	5013			72
Poland	2005		Warsaw	1000	18
Portugal*	2005	2011	Lisbon	1020 **	43
Scotland	2005	2010	Edinburgh	923 **	46
Republic South Africa	2004		Johannesburg	1500	na
Spain*	2005	2034	Madrid	927 **	40
Sweden*	2005	2012	Stockholm	1114 **	55
Switzerland	2005	3898	Zurich	483	70
Turkey	2005		Istanbul	1241	45
United Kingdom*	2005	2004	London	874 **	43
USA	2004	1001	New York	1010 **	27

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The respondents from the capital cities from the national random sample are added to the booster samples of the capital (or main) cities.

*** The England and Wales data was extracted from the UK sample.

Appendix 4
Trends in response rates

Trends in response rates for the national surveys; percentages for countries that participated at least twice. 1989 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Country	1989 surveys	1992 surveys	1996 surveys	2000 surveys	2004/05 surveys
Australia	45	57		56	55
Austria			76		46 *
Belgium	37	44		56	54 *
Canada	43	65	74	57	66
Denmark				66	44 *
England & Wales	43	38	59	57	43 *
Estonia		na	na	na	52 *
Finland	70	86	86	77	57 *
France	51		61	45	47 *
Germany	30				43 *
Italy		61			54 *
Japan				74	70
Netherlands	65	66	63	58	47 *
New Zealand		65			49
Northern Ireland	na		84	81	41
Norway	71				33
Poland		96	94	78	72
Portugal				56	43 *
Scotland	41		63	58	47
Spain	33				40 *
Sweden		77	75	66	55 *
Switzerland	68		56	65	70
USA	37	50	40	60	27
Average (13 countries)***	48	64	69	63	52
Average (5 countries)***	52	61	64	62	48

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Due to a different sampling strategy, a different method for computing the response rate has been used.

*** Average is based on the 13 countries from which data is available of at least 3 sweeps and 5 countries that participated all 5 sweeps.

Appendix 5
Summary of methodology by country

Participating countries in the last sweep, methodology applied, sampling strategy, financier and coordinating institute/contact. 2001-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Argentina	Buenos Aires and surrounding areas
Method:	face-to-face
Sampling:	3 stage stratified sample. Data from Ciudad Autónoma de Buenos Aires are used
Financier:	Ministerio de Justicia y Derechos Humanos de la Nación
Fieldwork:	Departamento de Investigaciones, Dirección Nacional de Política Criminal, Ministerio de Justicia y Derechos Humanos de la Nación
Principal researchers:	Mariano Ciafardini & Daniel R. Fernández – Departamento de Investigaciones. Dirección Nacional de Política Criminal. Ministerio de Justicia y Derechos Humanos de la Nación
Publication:	Ciafardini, M. & Fernández, D. R. (2004) *Estudio de Victimización en la Ciudad Autónoma de Buenos Aires*. Departamento de Investigaciones, Dirección Nacional de Política Criminal, Ministerio de Justicia y Derechos Humanos de la Nación. Downloadable from www.polcrim.jus.gov.ar
Australia	National survey with booster sample for immigrants and secnd generation immigrants
Method:	CATI
Sampling:	Random digit dialling – data for Sydney from the national survey. Additional respondents from immigrant and second generation immigrants have been downweighted
Financier:	Australian Government Attorney-General's Department and the Australian Government Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs
Fieldwork:	Social Research Centre, Canberra
Publication:	Challice, G. & and Johnson, H. (2005) *Crime victimisation in Australia*: *key results of the 2004 International Crime Victimisation Survey*. Research and public policy series No. 64. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology. This report and two reports on the methodology are downloadable from www.aic.gov.au

Brazil	Multiple cities
Method:	Face-to-face
Sampling:	random sample, stratified by administrative region within the city- data from Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro are extracted
Financier:	llanud, FIA – USP, Gabinete de Segurança Institucional, Sao Paulo
Fieldwork:	Ilanud, FIA – USP, Gabinete de Segurança Institucional, Sao Paulo
Publication:	Kahn, T., Besen, J. & Batista Costódia, R. (2002) *Pesquisa de Vitimização 2002 e avaliação do PIAPS*. Sao Paulo, Ilanud, FIA – USP, Gabinete de Segurança Institucional

Bulgaria	National survey
Method:	Face-to-face interview
Sampling:	Two stage random route sample
Financier:	Centre for the Study of Democracy
Fieldwork:	CSD's market research agency Vitosha Research (VR)
Publication:	Tihomir Bezlov & Philip Gounev (2005*) Crime Trends in Bulgaria: Police Statistics and Victimisation Surveys*. Centre for the Study of Democracy, Sofia

Cambodia	Phnom Penh and the plains of Cambodia
Method:	Face-to-face
Sampling:	For Phnom Penh: randomized [stratified by age and sex] – data from the capital are used
Financier:	Australian Agency for International Development
Fieldwork:	Ad hoc team plus police from the Criminology Department, National Police of the Ministry
Principal researchers:	Roderic Broadhurst – School of Justice Studies – Queensland University of Technology / Hong Centre for Criminology, Centre for Social Sciences, Hong Kong
Publication	Bradley, R. & Broadhurst, R.G. (2002*) International Crime Victimisation Survey Cambodia: Intirim Report*. Royal government of Cambodia and Cambodian Criminal Justice Assistence Project

Canada	National survey
Method:	CATI
Sampling:	National random dialling of telephone numbers
Financier:	Department of Justice, Canada
Fieldwork:	Leger Marketing, Montreal
Estonia	National survey
Method:	Face-to-face
Sampling:	Two stage stratified sample, also the capital city is extracted
Financier:	Ministry of Justice, Ministry of the Interior
Fieldwork:	Turu-uuringute AS – GFK Ad Hoc Research Worldwide
Principal researcher:	Andri Ahven – Ministry of Justice, Tallinn
Publication:	Saar, J., Markina, A., Oole, K., Rešetnikova, A. 2005. *Rahvusvaheline kuriteoohvrite uuring Eestis 2004*. Tartu Ülikooli Õigusinstituut, Justiitsministeerium, Siseministeerium. Tallinn. (with a English summary.) Downloadable from www.just.ee
Hong Kong (SAR China)	Main city survey
Method:	CATI
Sampling:	Randomised telephone selection stratified on district level
Financier:	Hong Kong University – Social Science Research Centre
Fieldwork:	Hong Kong University – Social Science Research Centre and financial contribution from MicroSoft
Principal researchers:	Roderic Broadhurst – Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane and John Bacon Shone, Lena Yue Ying Zhong, Kent Wong Lee – Hong Kong University, Social Science Research Centre
Publication:	Broadhurst, R.G., Lee, K.W., Bacon-Shone, J. & Zhong, Y.Y. (2006) *Preliminary Report of the International Crime Victimisation Survey*, 2005. Hong Kong University, Social Science Research Centre
Iceland	National survey
Method:	CATI
Sampling:	Random sample from the National register – data from Reykjavik are extracted
Financier:	The Icelandic Centre for Research – National Commissioner of the Icelandic Police – University of Iceland – Ministry of Justice

Fieldwork:	Capacent Gallup
Principal researchers:	Helgi Gunnlaugson, University of Iceland and Rannveig Thorisdottir, National Commissioner of the Icelandic Police
Publication:	Gunnlaugson, H. & Thorisdottir, R. (2005) *Brotaþolar, lögreglan og öryggi borgaranna* (Crime Victims, Police and Public Safety). Reykjavik: University of Iceland Press
Japan	National survey
Method:	Face-to-face
Sampling:	Stratified 2-stage sampling; A sample of 209 cities/villages, stratified by town size was taken. Within cities/villages, a random sample of individuals from the population registry
Financier:	Ministry of Justice (Government of Japan)
Fieldwork:	The Japanese research company contracted with the Ministry of Justice
Publication:	(2005) *The Second Crime Victimisation Survey.* Research Report Series No. 29, Research Division, Research and Training Institute, Ministry of Justice
Mexico	National survey
Method:	Face-to-face
Sampling:	Stratified (by socio economic characteristic) sample, age 18 and older
Fieldwork:	de la empresa Consulta Mitosfky, certificada en ESIMM y pertenece a la World Association for Public Opinion Research (WAPOR)
Principal researcher:	Luis de la Barreda – The Citizens Institute for the Study of Insecurity, Mexico City
Mozambique	Multiple cities
Method:	Face-to-face
Sampling:	Stratified by the municipalities' administrative areas. Data from the capital city is used.
Financier:	Ministry of Interior, Republic of Mozambique
Fieldwork:	Centre for population Studies, Eduardo Mondlane University
Publication:	Alvazzi del Frate, A., Bule, J., Kesteren, J. van (2003) *Strategic Plan of the Police of the Republic of Mozambique. Results of surveys on victimisation and police performance.* UNICRI, Turin

New Zealand	National survey
Method:	CATI
Sampling:	Sampling with quotas by local government region
Financier:	Ministry of Justice, Wellington
Fieldwork:	Gravitas Research and Strategy Limited, Auckland
Northern Ireland	National survey with booster sample in the capital
Method:	CATI
Sampling:	Random digit dialing
Financier:	Northern Ireland Office
Fieldwork:	Gallup Europe, Brussels
Norway	National survey
Method:	CATI
Sampling:	Split Sample; random from subscribers dataset (landlines) Random dialing for cell-phones
Financier:	Ministry of Justice and the Police
Fieldwork:	NORSTAT
Principal researcher:	Leif Petter Olausen – Institute of Criminology and Sociology of Law, University of Oslo
Publication:	Olaussen, L.P. (2005). *Folks oppfatninger av kriminalitet og politiservice*. Rapport til Justisdepartementet
Peru	Multiple cities
Method:	Face-to-face
Sampling:	Two stage stratified sample (stratified by administrative region) Data from Lima are used
Financier:	Inter-American Bank of Development
Fieldwork:	APOYO Opinion & Market, Lima
Principal researcher:	Hugo Morales – Faculty of Psychology, San Marcos University, Lima
Poland	National survey (2004)
Warsaw survey (2005)	
Method:	Face-to-face
Sampling:	Sampling of individuals, stratified by region and town size within the regions. Sampling of individuals, stratified by region within Warsaw
Financier:	Ministry of Science – Committee of Scientific Research

Fieldwork:	TNS OBOP
Principal researchers:	Beata Gruszczynska, M. Marczewski & Andrzej Siemaszko – Institute of Justice, Poland, Warsaw
Publication:	Siemaszko, A, Gruszczynska, B., Marczewski, M., Atlas Przestepczosci w Polsce, (forthcoming) Polish preliminary results, Institute of Justice, Poland
Republic South Africa	Greater Johannesburg (Magisterial District of Johannesburg)
Method:	Face-to-face
Sampling:	Stratified random sampling
Financier:	Institute for Criminological Sciences
Fieldwork:	The Bureau of Market Research, University of South Africa
Principal researchers:	Beaty Naudé & Johan Prinsloo – Institute for Criminological Sciences, University of South Africa, Pretoria
Publication:	Naudé CMB & Prinsloo JH. (2005) *The International (Victim) Survey in Johannesburg, South Africa*, 2004. Unpublished report, University of South Africa, Pretoria
Scotland	National survey with booster sample in the capital
Method:	CATI
Sampling:	Random digit dialing
Financier:	Scotland Executive, Edinburgh
Fieldwork:	Gallup Europe
Contact:	Scotland Executive, Edinburgh
Switzerland	National survey with booster sample in Zurich and three other main cities
Method:	CATI
Sampling:	Random dialing of tel numbers, quota sampling within household for individuals
Financier:	Swiss National Science Foundation; police of Zurich, Lausanne, Berne, St. Gallen and Fribourg
Principal researchers:	Martin Killias, Sandrine Haymoz, Philippe Lamon – Universities of Zurich and Lausanne
Publication:	Killias, M., Haymoz, S. & Lamon. P. (2007, forthcoming). Die *Kriminalität in der Schweiz im Lichte der Opferbefragungen von 1984 bis 2005*, Bern: Stämpfli

Turkey	City of Istanbul
Method:	Face-to-face
Sampling:	2-stage stratified, sample of administrative regions – sample of households
Financier:	Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TUBITAK)
Fieldwork:	Istanbul Bilgi University and Frekans Field Research and Information Processing Company
Principal researchers:	Galma Jahic – Istanbul Bilgi University and Dr. Aslı Akdaş – Dogus University (currently: at the time of the survey at the Istanbul Bilgi University)
USA	National survey with booster sample in New York
Method:	CATI
Sampling:	Random digit dialling
Financier:	United States Department of Justice
Fieldwork:	Gallup
EU ICS 2005	National samples with booster sample in the capitals – Austria – Belgium – Denmark – Finland – France – Germany – Greece – Hungary – Ireland – Italy – Luxembourg – the Netherlands – Portugal – Spain – Sweden – United Kingdom
Method:	CATI
Sampling:	Random digit dialling
Financier:	European commission – DG RTD & EU ICS consortium led by Gallup Europe
Fieldwork:	Gallup Europe
Publication:	Van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J., Hideg, G. (2007). *The Burden of Crime in the EU. Research Report: A Comparative Analysis of the EU International Crime Survey (EU ICS 2005)*. Gallup Europe, Brussels – (downloadable from www.europeansafetyobservatory.eu and www.intervict.nl)

Appendix 6
Statistical significance

A sample-based estimate is more or less close to the 'unknown' population value being measured. The size of the deviation δ depends on:
- Sample size (n)
- Percentage observed in the sample (p)
- Level of confidence chosen (z)

In this report we will use a level for confidence of 90%. The nomogram on the next page gives the confidence levels for observed percentages and sample sizes.
For instance, in a survey of 1.000 respondents, 20% said 'yes' to a certain question. The entry in the table on the next page, at row n=1.000 and with column percentage of 20, shows δ to be 2.1%. This implies that there is a nine in ten chance that the true population value lies between 17.9% and 22.1% (20± 2.1, at a confidence level of 90%). Hence, that there is a five percent probability that the real value is larger than 22.1% and five percent probability that it is smaller than 17.9%. In another example, say 2% of the sample of 2.000 people had been a victim of a particular crime in the last year. There would be a 90% chance that the true level of victimisation lies between 2.5% and 1.5% (2± 0.5) .

When there is an average victimisation rate for all countries of 5%, for instance, then a value from an individual survey with a sample of 2000 of more than 0.8% higher or lower than the average will me statistically significant at the 90% level. Where the overall victimisation rate is 2% say, deviations of 0.5% would be significant. (Thus, in absolute size, the standard error is smaller the less frequently a crime occurs, but proportionately it is much larger.) When the sample is 1000 (of woman only for example), deviations from an overall average of 5% of more than 1.1% will be significant, and with an average of 2%, deviations of 0.7% will be.

The equation which is used for calculating δ at a confidence level of 90% is:

$$\delta = 1.65 * \sqrt{[p(100-p)/n]}$$

When a research population is finite, the deviation δ is smaller because the equation is multiplied by:

$$(N-n) / (N-1)$$

In which N is the population size.

Nomogram for the 90% confidence interval for dichotomous data

	Percentages observed										
	2	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50
	98	95	90	85	80	75	70	65	60	55	50
Sample size											
25	4.6	7.2	9.9	11.8	13.2	15.2	15.1	15.7	16.1	16.4	16.5
50	3.3	5.1	7	8.3	9.3	10.7	10.7	11.1	11.4	11.6	11.6
100	2.3	3.6	4.9	5.9	6.6	7.6	7.5	7.9	8.1	8.2	8.2
200	1.6	2.5	3.5	4.2	4.7	5.4	5.3	5.6	5.7	5.8	5.8
300	1.3	2.1	2.9	3.4	3.8	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.8
400	1.2	1.8	2.5	2.9	3.3	3.8	3.8	3.9	4	4.1	4.1
500	1	1.6	2.2	2.6	2.9	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.7
600	0.9	1.5	2	2.4	2.7	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.4
700	0.9	1.4	1.9	2.2	2.5	2.9	2.9	3	3	3.1	3.1
800	0.8	1.3	1.7	2.1	2.3	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9
900	0.8	1.2	1.6	2	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.7
1,000	0.7	1.1	1.6	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.6
1,200	0.7	1	1.4	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4
1,400	0.6	1	1.3	1.6	1.8	2	2	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2
1,600	0.6	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.6	1.9	1.9	2	2	2	2.1
1,800	0.5	0.8	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9
2,000	0.5	0.8	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8
3,000	0.4	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5
4,000	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.9	1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3
6,000	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.8	1	1	1	1	1.1	1.1
8,000	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
10,000	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
20,000	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
30,000	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
40,000	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4

Appendix 7
Weighting procedure

7.1 The need for weighting

In each randomly selected household only one randomly selected respondent aged 16 or over was interviewed. No substitution of the selected respondent with another household member was allowed. This procedure guarantees a high quality sample and eliminates the disadvantage of quota sampling that the most co-operative respondent in a household is interviewed.

People in households of different sizes have different probabilities of being chosen for the interview, and a weighting procedure is needed to correct this to generate a representative sample of 'persons'. For instance, in a household comprising five people of 16 years or older, the chance of any one of them being interviewed is only one in five. In such large households, the respondents of the selected interviewee need to be upweighted. Otherwise, respondents from small households are over-represented. Weighting of the results is done to give the number of people in households of different sizes the proper weight of their proportion in the population.
Apart from the households to person translation, which is made by weighting, corrections have also been applied to make the samples as representative as possible in terms of gender, age and regional distribution.

7.2 Methodology

For each country, the most recent statistics on how many of the population were in households of different sizes were used as reference. Additional input for the weighting procedure concerned population size, gender, age and regional population distribution. No appropriate international statistics were available on other criteria such as household income, urbanisation, professional activities, tenure etc. to enable them to be used in weighting. Some of these variables, though, would be desirable for this purpose. In most countries, appropriate statistics concerning how the population of those 16 years or older ('adults') were distributed within households were either unavailable or inadequate. Thus, these statistics were derived from the present study itself.
First, on the bases of the available statistics on how many of the population were in households of different sizes, the samples were weighted, also taking into account region and gender. This was done in an iterative weighting procedure in witch individuals weights for individual respondents were computed to achieve weighting results with marginal totals on gender and region corresponding to population distributions.
In the survey itself, the composition of the households was determined by asking each respondent how many persons the household as a whole consisted of, and also how many were 16 years or older.

Using the weighted results on household size, compared to the distribution of household size in the population showed no significant deviation. Therefore we used the weighted distribution of number of adults from the sample as an estimate for the population. This resulted in household weights that were computed based on gender, household size and regional distribution. The individual weights were computed using the same iterative procedure, but apart from gender and regional distribution, also age and number of adults in the household served as criteria.

A different weighting procedure was applied for countries that had a stratified sample design. Since these samples were stratified by region, no weighting on region was necessary.

7.3 Weighting of the EU ICS booster samples in the national samples

The EU ICS surveys consisted of a 1200 cases national random sample and a 800 cases booster sample in the capital cities. For the EU ICS report, the weighting variables were computed in such a way that the national samples were set at 2000 cases. For reasons of consistency this approach has been pursued for the EU ICS countries in the present report as well. An alternative approach is to down-weigth the booster sample without up-weighting the national part, resulting in sample sizes for most of the EU ICS countries of 1200 cases. The method of weighting does not alter the national rates themselves but increases the error margins: the 90% reliability intervals are about 1.3 times larger.

The table below shows how the change from 2000 cases to 1200 cases impacts on the 90% confidence intervals, compared to the intervals shown in the figures in the report. The recalculated intervals apply to 13 of the EU ICS surveys and to Northern Ireland and Scotland. No booster sample was drawn in Luxembourg. The sample of the Finnish survey included more cases and the sample for England & Wales somewhat less (because it was extracted from the UK survey). Separate tables with confidence intervals are given for England & Wales and Finland.

Table **90% confidence intervals for different sample sizes, current sample size as shown in the report and alternative sample size**

	15 countries*		Finland		England & Wales	
Observed percentage	2000 = current sample size	1200 = alternative sample size	2500 = current sample size	1700 = alternative sample size	1750 = current sample size	975 = alternative sample size
1	0.37	0.47	0.33	0.40	0.39	0.53
2	0.52	0.67	0.46	0.56	0.55	0.74
3	0.63	0.81	0.56	0.68	0.67	0.90
4	0.72	0.93	0.65	0.78	0.77	1.04
5	0.80	1.04	0.72	0.87	0.86	1.15
6	0.88	1.13	0.78	0.95	0.94	1.25
7	0.94	1.22	0.84	1.02	1.01	1.35
8	1.00	1.29	0.90	1.09	1.07	1.43
9	1.06	1.36	0.94	1.15	1.13	1.51
10	1.11	1.43	0.99	1.20	1.18	1.59
12	1.20	1.55	1.07	1.30	1.28	1.72
14	1.28	1.65	1.15	1.39	1.37	1.83
16	1.35	1.75	1.21	1.47	1.45	1.94
18	1.42	1.83	1.27	1.54	1.52	2.03
20	1.48	1.91	1.32	1.60	1.58	2.11
22	1.53	1.97	1.37	1.66	1.63	2.19

* The 13 EU ICS countries are: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain and Sweden, plus Northern Ireland and Scotland. Data from the United Kingdom are not shown in the graphs, but it applies to the UK as well.

Appendix 8
The questionnaire

This appendix shows the ICVS questionnaire as was used outside the European Union. The questionnaire is first presented in schematic overview and then in full text. The EU ICS questionnaire had some additional items; they are mentioned here only if they were used in this report. We refer to the consortium's website for the full EU ICS questionnaire in all available languages. See INTERVICT website for older versions of the questionnaire (www.INTERVICT.nl).

Table 1 **Schematic overview of the ICVS EU ICS questionnaire – conventional crimes**

	5 year victimisation screener	When did it happen – how often last year	Where did it happen	Report to the police	Why not	Satisfied with report	Why not satisfied	Victim support – Support useful	Serious
Screeners vehicle ownership and number of them									
Car theft	•	•	•	•					•
Was the stolen car returned? (distinction between joy-riding and serious theft)									
Theft from a car	•	•	•	•		•	•		•
Car vandalism (this crime was dropped from the questionnaire)									
Motorcycle/moped theft	•	•	•	•					•
Bicycle theft	•	•	•	•					•
Burglary	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•
Was anything stolen, value									
Was anything damaged, value									
Attempted burglary	•	•		•	•				•
Robbery	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Number of offenders, offender known									
Weapons used, kind of weapon, actually used									
Was something actually stolen									
Theft of personal property	•	•	•	•	•				•
Were you holding or carrying what was stolen (e.g., was it a case of pickpocketing?)									
Sexual offences		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Number of offenders, offender known, who was it									
Weapons used, kind of weapon, actually used									
What actually happened – was it a crime									
Assault & Threat	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Plus an additional screener on domestic incidents									
Number of offenders, offender known, who was it									
What actually happened – was it a crime									

Table 2 **Schematic overview of the items in the ICVS questionnaire – non-conventional crimes – household and respondent information – attitudes and opinions**

Non conventional crimes	
Consumer fraud	One year victimisation
	Type of fraud, (EU ICS – was it credit card fraud)
	Report to the police
Street level corruption	One year victimisation
	Who was the corrupted official
	Report to the police
Hate crime (EU ICS)	Five year victimisation
	How often last year
Drugs problems (EU ICS)	Twelve month victimisation
Attitudes, policing and household information	
Attitudes to crime	How safe do you feel after dark in your area
	How likely is burglary in the coming year
Policing questions	How good a job does the police in controlling crime
	Type of sentence for a recidivist burglar – how long prison sentence
Demographic information	Size of town
	Household size and composition
	Gender respondent
	Type of house
	occupational position
	Educational level
	Income level – satisfied with income
	Marital status
	Immigrant status
	religious denomination
Other household information	Anti burglary protection
	Firearm ownership – type of firearm – reason for having a firearm
	Going out in the evening

2004/05 INTERNATIONAL CRIME VICTIMISATION SURVEY CATI-VERSION

Q1. Good morning/afternoon/evening. I am an interviewer of the Survey Company.... We are conducting an important survey for the ....about the problem of crime. Information obtained from the study will assist law enforcement agencies to better prevent crime in the future.

The survey is part of a major research project, which is being carried out in many different countries. May I ask you some questions for the survey? The interview won't take much of your time. Your answers will, of course, be treated confidentially and anonymously.

<< INT. IF RESPONDENT IS SUSPICIOUS OR DOUBTFUL: >> If you want to check whether this survey is done in co-operation with.... or if you would like more information, I can give you the phone-number of someone at.....

<< INT. IF RESPONDENT ASKS FOR THAT NUMBER: >> May I call you back in 30 minutes/tomorrow?

1 Respondent is willing to co-operate
2 Respondent asks for telephone number and wants to make appointment
3 Respondent can be called back
4 Respondent refuses co-operation (SOFT refusal)
5 Respondent refuses co-operation (HARD refusal)

If answer is equal to code 4 or 5, then end of questionnaire

If answer is equal to code 2 or code 3, then make a call-back

Else continue with question 5.

Q5. In order to determine which person I must interview, I would like to know how many people (persons) there are in your household, including yourself.

1 1
2 2
3 3
4 4
5 5
6 6 or more

If answer is equal to code 1, then continue with question 16

Q6. How many people (persons) aged 16 or over are there in your household, including yourself?

1 1
2 2
3 3
4 4+

Q7. And how many of them are males aged over 16?

1 1
2 2
3 3
4 4+
5 0 (zero)

APPLY TROLDAHL-CARTER SELECTION HERE

Q10. According to my instructions, I have to interview the *03 in your household. Can you please ask him/her whether he/she is willing to come to the phone?

<<INT: IF PERSON NOT AVAILABLE:>> Can you tell me at what time I have the best chance of getting him/her on the phone?

Q15. <<INT: QUESTIONS TO MEMBER OF HOUSEHOLD SELECTED BY COMPUTER IF OTHER THAN FIRST CONTACT.>> Good morning/afternoon/evening. I am an interviewer of the Survey Company.... <<THIS INTRODUCTION CAN BE CHANGED SLIGHTLY TO SUIT NATIONAL NEEDS>>

The survey is part of an international project, which is being done in many European and non-European countries. May I ask you some questions for the survey? The interview won't take much of your time. Your answers will, of course, be treated confidentially and anonymously.

<< INT. IF RESPONDENT IS SUSPICIOUS OR DOUBTFUL: >> If you want to check whether this survey is done in co-operation with.... or if you would like more information, I can give you the phone-number of someone at.....<< INT. IF RESPONDENT ASKS FOR THAT NUMBER: >> May I call you back in 30 minutes/tomorrow?

1 Respondent is willing to co-operate
2 Respondent asks for telephone number and wants to make appointment
3 Respondent can be called back

4 Respondent refuses co-operation (SOFT refusal)
5 Respondent refuses co-operation (HARD refusal)

If answer is equal to code 4 or 5, then end of questionnaire

If answer is equal to code 2 or code 3, then make a call-back

Q16. << INT: NOTE DOWN THE SEX OF RESPONDENT WITHOUT ASKING>>
1 Male
2 Female
9 Don't know

VEHICLE OWNERSHIP

Q20. I shall start with some questions about crimes involving cars, and so I first need to ask you about car ownership. Over the past five years, which is since 1995, has anyone in your household had a car, van or truck for private use?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 2, then continue with question 25.

Q21. How many vehicles has your household had use of for most of the time?
1 One
2 Two
3 Three
4 Four
5 Five or more
9 Don't know

Q25. Has anyone in your household owned a moped, scooter, motorcycle (or mofa*) over the past five years? << INT:* ONLY IF RELEVANT IN YOUR COUNTRY >>
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 2, then continue with question 30.

Q26. And how many vehicles has your household had use of for most of the time?

1 One
2 Two
3 Three
4 Four
5 Five or more
9 Don't know

Q30. Has anyone in your household owned a bicycle over the past five years?

<< INT: INCLUDE CHILDREN'S BICYCLES >>

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 2, then continue with question 32.

Q31. And how many bicycles has your household had use of for most of the time?

1 One
2 Two
3 Three
4 Four
5 Five or more
9 Don't know

Q32. I now want to ask you about crimes you or your household may have experienced during the past five years, which is since 2000. It is sometimes difficult to remember such incidents so I will read the questions slowly and I would like you to think carefully about them.

VICTIMISATION SCREENERS

If question 20 is not equal to code 1, then continue with question 50.

Q35. Over the past five years have you or other members of your household had any of their cars/vans/trucks stolen? Please take your time to think about it.

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q40. Apart from this, over the past five years have you or have members of your household been the victim of a theft of a car radio, or something else which was left in your car, or theft of a part of the car, such as a car mirror or wheel?

<< INT: VANDALISM MUST NOT BE REPORTED HERE, BUT UNDER THE NEXT QUESTION; IF THE CAR ITSELF WAS STOLEN AS WELL, THIS SHOULD HAVE BEEN REPORTED BEFORE. OTHER THEFTS FROM THE CAR WHEN IT WAS TAKEN MUST NOT BE REPORTED HERE >>

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If question 25 is not equal to code 1, then continue with question 55

Q50. Over the past five years have you or other members of your household had any of their mopeds/scooters/motorcycles/ mofa's)* stolen? <<*INT: ONLY IF RELEVANT IN COUNTRY>>

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If question 30 is not equal to code 1, then continue with question 60, else continue with question 55

Q55. Over the past five years have you or other members of your household had any of their bicycles stolen? << INT. INCLUDE CHILDREN'S BICYCLE >>

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q60. Over the past five years, did anyone actually get into your home/residence without permission, and steal or try to steal something? I am not including here thefts from garages, sheds or lock-ups.

<<INT. INCLUDE CELLARS, DO NOT COUNT BURGLARIES IN SECOND HOUSES>>

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q65. Apart from this, over the past five years, do you have any evidence that someone tried to get into your home/residence unsuccessfully. For example, damage to locks, doors or windows or scratches around the lock?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q66. Next I want to ask you some questions about what may have happened to you personally. Things that you have mentioned already or which happened to other members of your household must not be mentioned now.

Q70. Over the past five years has anyone stolen something from you by using force or threatening you, or did anybody try to steal something from you by using force or threatening force.

<< INT. PICKPOCKETING MUST BE REPORTED UNDER THE NEXT QUESTION >>
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q75 << INT. READ SLOWLY >> Apart from theft involving force there are many other types of theft of personal property, such as pickpocketing or theft of a purse, wallet, clothing, jewellery, sports equipment, This can happen at one's work, at school, in a pub, on public transport, on the beach, or in the street. Over the past five years have you personally been the victim of any of these thefts?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q76. I would now like to ask you some questions about crimes of violence of which you personally may have been the victim.

Q80. First, a rather personal question. People sometimes grab, touch or assault others for sexual reasons in a really offensive way. This can happen either at home, or elsewhere, for instance in a pub, the street, at school, on public transport, in cinemas, on the beach, or at one's workplace. Over the past five years has anyone done this to you? Please take your time to think about it.

<< INT: INCLUDE DOMESTIC SEXUAL ASSAULTS >>
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q85. Apart from the incidents just covered, have you over the past five years been personally attacked or threatened by someone in a way that really frightened you, either at home or elsewhere, such as in a pub, in the street, at school, on public transport, on the beach, or at your workplace<< INT. INCLUDE DOMESTIC ASSAULTS >>
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If question 85 is equal to code 1, then continue with question 86, Else continue with question 85a

Nw Q85a. Take your time to consider. An incident of this sort might also have involved your partner, family member or a close friend. So apart from incidents already covered, have you in the past five years been personally attacked or threatened by someone you know in a way that really frightened you?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If no crimes mentioned continue with question 280.

Else continue with question 86.

Q86. Could I now go back to ask you about the crimes you said had happened to you or your household.

THEFT OF CAR – DETAILS

If question 35 is not equal to code 1, then continue with question 110. Else continue with question 100.

Q100. First of all, you mentioned the theft of a car. When did this happen? Was this...

<<INT. READ OUT >><<INT. IF RESPONDENT HAS BEEN VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE, AND AT LEAST ONE TIME IN 2004: TYPE IN 2) LAST YEAR (2004)) >>

1 This year
2 Last year, in 2004
3 Before then
9 Don't know/can't remember

If answer is equal to code 2, then continue with question 101.

Else continue with question 102.

Q101. How often did it happen in 2004?
1 Once
2 Twice
3 Three times
4 Four times
5 Five times or more
9 Don't know

Q102. (The last time) did this theft happen at your own home/residence, near your own home/residence, elsewhere in your city or local area, at work, elsewhere in [COUNTRY], or did it happen abroad?

<<INT. IF VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE OVER THE PAST FIVE YEARS, ASK ABOUT THE LAST TIME THIS HAPPENED >>
<<INT. INCLUDE INCIDENTS THAT TOOK PLACE IN GARAGES, DRIVES ETC AS CODE 1 >>
1 At your own home/residence
2 Near your own home/residence
3 Elsewhere in city or local area
4 At work
5 Elsewhere in [COUNTRY]
6 Abroad
9 Don't know

Q103. (The last time this happened) was the car/van ever recovered?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q104. (The last time this happened) did you or anyone else report the incident to the police?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q105. Taking everything into account, how serious was the incident for you or your household. Was it very serious, fairly serious, or not very serious?

1 Very serious
2 Fairly serious
3 Not very serious
9 Don't know

THEFT FROM CARS – DETAILS

If question 40 is not equal to code 1 then continue with question 140.

Q110. The theft FROM your car that you mentioned, when did this happen? Was it...

<<INT. READ OUT >> <<INT. IF RESPONDENT HAS BEEN VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE, AND AT LEAST ONE TIME IN 2004: TYPE IN 2) LAST YEAR (2004))

1 This year
2 Last year, in 2004
3 Before then
9 Don't know/can't remember

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 111.

Else continue with question 112.

Q111. How often did it happen in 2004?

1 Once
2 Twice
3 Three times
4 Four times
5 Five times or more
9 Don't know

Q112. (The last time) did this theft happen at your own home/residence, near your own home/residence, elsewhere in your city or local area, at work, elsewhere in [COUNTRY], or did it happen abroad?

<<INT. IF VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE OVER THE PAST FIVE YEARS, ASK ABOUT THE LAST TIME THIS HAPPENED >><<INT. INCLUDE INCIDENTS THAT TOOK PLACE IN GARAGES, DRIVES ETC AS CODE 1 >>

1 At your own home/residence
2 Near your own home/residence
3 Elsewhere in city or local area
4 At work
5 Elsewhere in [COUNTRY]
6 Abroad
9 Don't know

Q113. (The last time this happened) did you or anyone else report that incident to the police?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1 then continue with question 115.

Else continue with question 119.

Q115. On the whole, were you satisfied with the way the police dealt with the matter?
1 Yes (satisfied)
2 No (dissatisfied)
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1 or code 9, continue with question 119.

If answer equal to code 2, continue with question 116.

Q116. For what reasons were you dissatisfied? You can give more than one reason.

<< INT. MULTIPLE ANSWERS ALLOWED >>
1 Didn't do enough
2 Were not interested
3 Didn't find or apprehend the offender
4 Didn't recover my property (goods)
5 Didn't keep me properly informed
6 Didn't treat me correctly/were impolite
7 Were slow to arrive
8 Other reasons
9 Don't know

Q119. Taking every thing into account, how serious was the incident for you and your household. Was it very serious, fairly serious, or not very serious?

1 Very serious
2 Fairly serious
3 Not very serious
9 Don't know

THEFT OF MOTORCYCLES – DETAILS

If question 50 is not equal to code 1 then continue with question 150.

Q140. The theft of your moped/scooter/motorcycle/[*mofa] that you mentioned, when did this happen? Was it...<<INT. READ OUT >><<INT. IF RESPONDENT HAS BEEN A VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE, AND AT LEAST ONE TIME IN 2004, TYPE IN 2) LAST YEAR (2004) >>

1 This year
2 Last year, in 2004
3 Before then
9 Don't know/can't remember

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 141.

Else continue with question 142.

Q141. How often did it happen in 2004?

1 Once
2 Twice
3 Three times
4 Four times
5 Five times or more
9 Don't know

Q142. (The last time) did this theft happen at your own home/residence, near your own home/residence, elsewhere in your city or local area, at work, elsewhere in [COUNTRY], or did it happen abroad?

<<INT. IF VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE OVER THE PAST FIVE YEARS, ASK ABOUT THE LAST TIME THIS HAPPENED >>
<<INT. INCLUDE INCIDENTS THAT TOOK PLACE IN GARAGES, DRIVES ETC AS CODE 1 >>

1 At your own home/residence
2 Near your own home/residence
3 Elsewhere in city or local area
4 At work

5 Elsewhere in [COUNTRY]
6 Abroad
9 Don't know

Q143. (The last time this happened) did you or anyone else report it to the police?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q144. Taking every thing into account, how serious was the incident for you and your household. Was it very serious, fairly serious, or not very serious?
1 Very serious
2 Fairly serious
3 Not very serious
9 Don't know

BICYCLE THEFT – DETAILS

If question 55 not equal to code 1 than continue with question 160.

Q150. The bicycle theft you mentioned, when did this happen? Was it....

<<INT. READ OUT >><<INT. IF RESPONDENT HAS BEEN A VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE, AND AT LEAST ONE TIME IN 2004, TYPE 2) LAST YEAR (2004)
1 This year
2 Last year, in 2004
3 Before then
9 Don't know/can't remember

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 151.

Else continue with question 152.

Q151. How often did it happen in 2004?
1 Once
2 Twice
3 Three times
4 Four times
5 Five times or more
9 Don't know

Q152. (The last time) did this theft happen at your own home/residence, near your own home/residence, elsewhere in your city or local area, at work, elsewhere in [COUNTRY], or did it happen abroad?

<<INT. IF VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE OVER THE PAST FIVE YEARS, ASK ABOUT THE LAST TIME THIS HAPPENED >>
<<INT. INCLUDE INCIDENTS THAT TOOK PLACE IN GARAGES, DRIVES ETC AS CODE 1 >>

1 At your own home/residence
2 Near your own home/residence
3 Elsewhere in city or local area
4 At work
5 Elsewhere in [COUNTRY]
6 Abroad
9 Don't know

Q153. (The last time this happened) did you or anyone else report it to the police?

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q154. Taking every thing into account, how serious was the incident for you and your household. Was it very serious, fairly serious, or not very serious?

1 Very serious
2 Fairly serious
3 Not very serious
9 Don't know

BURGLARY/HOUSEBREAKING – DETAILS

If question 60 is not equal to code 1 then continue with question 180. Else continue with question 160.

Q160. You said that someone got into your home/residence without permission and stole or tried to steal something in the last five years. When did this happen? Was it..... << INT. READ OUT >>

<<INT. IF RESPONDENT HAS BEEN VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE, AND AT LEAST ONE TIME IN 2004; TYPE IN 2) LAST YEAR (2004)>>

1 This year
2 Last year, in 2004

3 Before then
9 Don't know/can't remember

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 161.

Else continue with question 162.

Q161. How often did it happen in 2004?
1 Once
2 Twice
3 Three times
4 Four times
5 Five times or more
9 Don't know

Q162. (The last time this happened) was anything actually stolen?

<<INT. IF VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE OVER THE PAST FIVE YEARS, ASK ABOUT THE LAST TIME THIS HAPPENED >>
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 164.

Else continue with question 163.

Q163. What do you estimate roughly was the value of the property stolen?

<< INT. WRITE IN COST, EVEN IF ONLY A ROUGH ESTIMATE >> Validation check for abnormal amounts << INT. IF RESPONDENT UNCLEAR, ASK FOR REPLACEMENT VALUE OR REPAIR COSTS>>

Q164. Was there any damage done?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 166.

Else continue with question 165.

Q165. What do you estimate roughly was the value of the property damaged?

<< INT. WRITE IN COST, EVEN IF ONLY A ROUGH ESTIMATE >> Validation check for abnormal amounts<< INT. IF RESPONDENT UNCLEAR, ASK FOR REPLACEMENT VALUE OR REPAIR COSTS>>

Q166. Did you or anyone else report the last burglary/housebreaking to the police?

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 170.

Else continue with question 168.

Q168. On the whole, were you satisfied with the way the police dealt with the matter?

1 Yes, satisfied
2 No, dissatisfied
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1 or to code 9, then continue with question 172.

Q169. For what reasons were you dissatisfied? You can give more than one reason.

<<INT. MULTIPLE ANSWERS ALLOWED >>

1 Didn't do enough
2 Were not interested
3 Didn't find or apprehend the offender
4 Didn't recover my property (goods)
5 Didn't keep me properly informed
6 Didn't treat me correctly/were impolite
7 Were slow to arrive
8 Other reasons
9 Don't know

Q170. Why didn't you report it?

<< INT. IF NO CLEAR ANSWER: >> Can you tell me a little more?
< INT. MULTIPLE ANSWERS ALLOWED >

1 Not serious enough/no loss/kid's stuff
2 Solved it myself/perpetrator known to me
3 Inappropriate for police/police not necessary
4 Reported to other authorities instead
5 My family resolved it
6 No insurance
7 Police could do nothing/lack of proof
8 Police won't do anything about it
9 Fear/dislike of the police/no involvement wanted with police
10 Didn't dare (for fear of reprisal)
11 Other reasons
12 Don't know

Q172. Taking every thing into account, how serious was the incident for you and your household. Was it very serious, fairly serious, or not very serious?
1 Very serious
2 Fairly serious
3 Not very serious
9 Don't know

If code 1 at question 166 continue with question 173. Else continue with question 180.

Q173. In some countries, agencies have been set up to help victims of crime by giving information, or practical or emotional support. Did you or anyone else in your household have any contact with such a specialised agency after this incident?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 2, continue with question 174.

Else continue with question 180.

Q174. Do you feel the services of a SPECIALISED agency to help victims of crime would have been useful for you or anyone else in your household after this incident?
1 No, not useful
2 Yes useful
9 Don't know

ATTEMPTED BURGLARY/HOUSEBREAKING – DETAILS

If question 65 is not equal to code 1 then continue with question 190. Else continue with question 180.

Q180. You mentioned an incident when someone tried to get into your home/residence but didn't succeed. When did this happen? Was it... ><INT. READ OUT>> <<INT. IF RESPONDENT HAS BEEN VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE, AND AT LEAST ONE TIME IN 2004: TYPE IN 2) LAST YEAR (2004)>>

1 This year
2 Last year, in 2004
3 Before then
9 Don't know/can't remember

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 181.

Else continue with question 182.

Q181. How often did it happen in 2004?

1 Once
2 Twice
3 Three times
4 Four times
5 Five times or more
9 Don't know

Q182. (The last time this happened) did you or anyone else report the attempted burglary/housebreaking to the police? <<INT. IF VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE OVER THE PAST FIVE YEARS, ASK ABOUT THE LAST TIME THIS HAPPENED >>

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q183. Taking everything into account, how serious was the incident for you or your household. Was it very serious, fairly serious, or not very serious?

1 Very serious
2 Fairly serious
3 Not very serious
9 Don't know

ROBBERY – DETAILS

If question 70 is not equal to code 1 then continue with question 210. Else continue with question 190.

Q190. You mentioned an incident when someone stole something from you or tried to steal something from you using force or threatening to use force. When did this happen? Was it...

<<INT. READ OUT >><<INT. IF RESPONDENT HAS BEEN VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE, AND AT LEAST ONE TIME IN 2004: TYPE IN 2) LAST YEAR (2004)>>

1 This year
2 Last year, in 2004
3 Before then
9 Don't know/can't remember

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 191.

Else continue with question 192.

Q191. How often did it happen in 2004?

1 Once
2 Twice
3 Three times
4 Four times
5 Five times or more
9 Don't know

Q192. (The last time) did this theft with force happen at your own home/residence, near your own home/residence, elsewhere in your city or local area, at work, elsewhere in [COUNTRY], or did it happen abroad? <<INT. IF VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE OVER THE PAST FIVE YEARS, ASK ABOUT THE LAST TIME THIS HAPPENED >> <<INT. INCLUDE INCIDENTS THAT TOOK PLACE IN GARAGES, DRIVES ETC AS CODE 1 >>

1 At your own home/residence
2 Near your own home/residence
3 Elsewhere in city or local area
4 At work
5 Elsewhere in [COUNTRY]
6 Abroad
9 Don't know

Q193. How many people were involved in committing the offence?
1 One
2 Two
3 Three or more
9 Don't know

Q194. (About the last incident) did you know the offender(s) by name or by sight at the time of the offence?<INT: IF MORE THAN ONE OFFENDER, COUNT AS KNOWN IF AT LEAST ONE KNOWN >
1 Did not know offender(s)
2 (At least one) known by sight
3 (At least one) known by name
4 Did not see offender

Q195. Did (any of) the offender(s) have a knife, a gun, another weapon or something used as a weapon?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1 then continue with question 196.

Else continue with question 198.

Q196. What was it?
1 Knife
2 Gun
3 Other weapon/stick
4 Something used as a weapon
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 2, then continue with question 196a.

Else continue with question 197.

Q196a. Was it a handgun or a long gun?

<<INT. LONG GUNS INCLUDE SHOTGUNS, RIFLES OR MACHINEGUNS>>
1 Handgun
2 Long gun (rifle, machinegun)
3 Don't know

Q197. Was the weapon actually used? <<INT. COUNT WEAPON AS USED: KNIFE/OTHER WEAPON/STICK: THREATENED WITH IT, OR VICTIM IN PHYSICAL CONTACT WITH THE WEAPON -GUN: THREATENED WITH IT OR BULLET FIRED >>

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q198. Did the offender actually steal something from you?

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q199. (The last time this happened) did you or anyone else report the robbery to the police?

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q201. On the whole, were you satisfied with the way the police dealt with the matter?

1 Yes, satisfied
2 No, dissatisfied
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1 or to code 9, then continue with question 205.

If answer is equal to code 2, then continue with question 202.

Q202. For what reasons were you dissatisfied? You can give more than one reason.

<<INT. MULTIPLE ANSWERS ALLOWED >>

1 Didn't do enough
2 Were not interested
3 Didn't find or apprehend the offender
4 Didn't recover my property (goods)
5 Didn't keep me properly informed
6 Didn't treat me correctly/were impolite
7 Were slow to arrive
8 Other reasons
9 Don't know

Q205. Taking every thing into account, how serious was the incident for you. Was it very serious, fairly serious, or not very serious?
1 Very serious
2 Fairly serious
3 Not very serious
9 Don't know

If code 1 at question 199 continue with question 206.

Else continue with question 210.

Q206. In some countries, agencies have been set up to help victims of crime by giving information, or practical or emotional support. Did you or anyone else in your household have any contact with such a specialised agency after this incident?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 2, continue with question 207.

Else continue with question 210.

Q207. Do you feel the services of a SPECIALISED agency to help victims of crime would have been useful for you after this incident?
1 No, not useful
2 Yes, useful
9 Don't know

THEFT OF PERSONAL PROPERTY – DETAILS

If question 75 is not equal to code 1 continue with question 220.

Else continue to question 210.

Q210. The theft of personal property that you mentioned, when did this happen, was it...

<<INT. IF RESPONDENT HAS BEEN A VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE, ASK IF THIS HAPPENED AT LEAST ONE TIME IN 2004: TYPE ON 2) LAST YEAR (2004)>>
1 This year
2 Last year, in 2004
3 Before then
9 Don't know/can't remember

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 211.

Else continue with question 212.

Q211. How often did it happen in 2004?
1 Once
2 Twice
3 Three times
4 Four times
5 Five times or more
9 Don't know

Q212. (The last time) did this theft happen at your own home/residence, near your own home/residence, elsewhere in your city or local area, at work, elsewhere in [COUNTRY], or did it happen abroad?

<<INT. IF VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE OVER THE PAST FIVE YEARS, ASK ABOUT THE LAST TIME THIS HAPPENED >><<INT. INCLUDE INCIDENTS THAT TOOK PLACE IN GARAGES, DRIVES ETC AS CODE 1 >>
1 At your own home/residence
2 Near your own home/residence
3 Elsewhere in city or local area
4 At work
5 Elsewhere in [COUNTRY]
6 Abroad
9 Don't know

Q213. (The last time this happened) were you holding or carrying what was stolen (e.g., was it a case of pickpocketing?)
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q214. (The last time) did you or anyone else report that incident to the police?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q215. Taking everything into account, how serious was the incident for you. Was it very serious, fairly serious, or not very serious?
1 Very serious
2 Fairly serious

3 Not very serious
9 Don't know

SEXUAL INCIDENTS – DETAILS

If question 80 is not equal to code 1, then continue with question 250.

Q220. You mentioned that you had been a victim of a sexual offence. Could I ask you about this? When did this happen? Was it... <<INT. READ OUT >><<INT. IF RESPONDENT HAS BEEN VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE, AND AT LEAST ONE TIME IN 2004: TYPE IN 2) LAST YEAR (2004)>>
1 This year
2 Last year, in 2004
3 Before then
9 Don't know/can't remember

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 221.

Else continue with question 222.

Q221. How often did it happen in 2004?
1 Once
2 Twice
3 Three times
4 Four times
5 Five times or more
9 Don't know

Q222. (The last time) did this incident happen at your own home/residence, near your own home/residence, elsewhere in your city or local area, at work, elsewhere in [COUNTRY], or did it happen abroad? <<INT: IF VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE OVER THE PAST FIVE YEARS, ASK ABOUT THE LAST TIME THIS HAPPENED >>
1 At your own home/residence
2 Near your own home/residence
3 Elsewhere in city or local area
4 At work
5 Elsewhere in [COUNTRY]
6 Abroad
9 Don't know

Q223. How many people were involved in committing the offence?
1 One
2 Two
3 Three
9 Don't know

Q224. (About the last incident) did you know the offender(s) by name or by sight at the time of the offence? <<INT. IF MORE THAN ONE OFFENDER, COUNT AS KNOWN IF AT LEAST ONE KNOWN >><<IF KNOWN BY SIGHT AND KNOWN BY NAME: RECORD KNOWN BY NAME>>
1 Did not know offender
2 (At least one) known by sight
3 (At least one) known by name
4 Did not see offender
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 3 then continue with question 225.

Else continue with question 226.

Q225. Were any of them your spouse, ex-spouse, partner, ex-partner, boyfriend, ex-boyfriend, a relative or a close friend, or was it someone you work with? <<INT. MEANS RELATIONSHIP AT TIME OF THE OFFENCES>> <<IF UNCLEAR, PROBE WHETHER EX-SPOUSE, EX-PARTNER, EX-BOYFRIEND AT TIME OF THE OFFENCE >> << MULTIPLE ANSWERS ALLOWED >>
1 Spouse, partner, (at the time)
2 Ex-spouse, ex-partner, (at the time)
3 Boyfriend/girlfriend (at the time)
4 Ex-boyfriend/ex-girlfriend (at the time)
5 Relative
6 Close friend
7 Someone she/he works/worked with
8 None of these
9 Refuses to say
99 Don't know

Q226. Did (any of) the offender(s) have a knife, a gun, another weapon or something used as a weapon?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1 then continue with question 227.

Else continue with question 229.

Q227. What was it?
1 Knife
2 Gun
3 Other weapon/stick
4 Something used as a weapon
9 Don't know

Q228. Was the weapon actually used? <INT. COUNT WEAPON AS USED: – KNIFE/OTHER WEAPON/STICK: THREATENED WITH IT, OR VICTIMIN PHYSICAL CONTACT WITH THE WEAPON – GUN: THREATENED WITH IT OR BULLET FIRED>
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q229. Would you describe the incident as a rape (forced intercourse), an attempted rape, an indecent assault or as just behaviour which you found offensive?
1 A rape
2 An attempted rape
3 Indecent assault
4 Offensive behaviour
9 Don't know

Q230. Taking everything into account, how serious was the incident for you? Was it very serious, fairly serious, or not very serious? << INT. IN CASE OF A VERY SERIOUS INCIDENT (EG, A RAPE), START WITH: >> The following question is asked for every sexual incident that people mention...
1 Very serious
2 Fairly serious
3 Not very serious
9 Don't know

Q231. Do you regard the incident as a crime?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q232. Did you or anyone else report that incident to the police?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1 then continue with question 234.

Else continue with question 250.

Q234. On the whole, were you satisfied with the way the police dealt with the matter?

1 Yes (satisfied)
2 No (dissatisfied)
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 2, continue with question 235.

Else continue with question 239.

Q235. For what reasons were you dissatisfied? You can give more than one reason.

<< INT. MULTIPLE ANSWERS ALLOWED >>

1 Didn't do enough
2 Were not interested
3 Didn't find or apprehend the offender
4 Didn't keep me properly informed
5 Didn't treat me correctly/were impolite
6 Were slow to arrive
7 Other reasons
9 Don't know

Q238. In some countries, agencies have been set up to help victims of crime by giving information, or practical or emotional support. Did you or anyone else in your household have any contact with such a specialised agency after this incident?

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 2, continue with question 239.

Else continue with question 250.

Q239 Do you feel the services of a SPECIALISED agency to help victims of crime would have been useful for you after this incident?

1 No, not useful
2 Yes useful
9 Don't know

ASSAULTS AND THREATS – DETAILS

If (question 85 is not equal to code 1 AND question 85a is not equal to code 1) then continue with question 280.

Q250. The attack or threat that you mentioned, when did this happen? Was it...

<<INT. READ OUT >><<INT. IF RESPONDENT HAS BEEN VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE, AND AT LEAST ONE TIME IN 2004: TYPE IN 2) LAST YEAR (2004)>>

1 This year
2 Last year, in 2004
3 Before then
9 Don't know/can't remember

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 251.

Else continue with question 252.

Q251. How often did it happen in 2004?

1 Once
2 Twice
3 Three times
4 Four times
5 Five times or more
9 Don't know

Q252. (The last time) did this incident happen at your own home/residence, near your own home/residence, elsewhere in your city or local area, at work, elsewhere in [COUNTRY], or did it happen abroad? <INT. IF VICTIM MORE THAN ONCE OVER THE PAST FIVE YEARS, ASK ABOUT THE LAST TIME THIS HAPPENED >

1 At your own home/residence
2 Near your own home/residence
3 Else in city or local area
4 At work
5 Elsewhere in [COUNTRY]
6 Abroad
9 Don't know

Q253. How many people were involved in committing the offence?

1 One
2 Two
3 Three or more people
9 Don't know

Q254. (About the last incident) did you know the offender(s) by name or by sight at the time of the offence?<<INT. IF MORE THAN ONE OFFENDER, COUNT IF KNOWN IF AT LEAST ONE KNOWN >>

<<IF KNOWN BY SIGHT AND KNOWN BY NAME: RECORD KNOWN BY NAME>>

1 Did not know offender
2 (At least one) known by sight
3 (At least one) known by name
4 Did not see offender
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 3 then continue with question 255.

Else continue with question 256.

Q255. Were any of them your spouse, ex-spouse, partner, ex-partner, boyfriend, ex-boyfriend, a relative or a close friend, or someone you work with? <<INT. MEANS RELATIONSHIP AT TIME OF THE OFFENCES>><<IF UNCLEAR, PROBE WHETHER EX-SPOUSE, EX-PARTNER, EX-BOYFRIEND AT TIME OF THE OFFENCE >><< INT. MULTIPLE ANSWERS ALLOWED >>

1 Spouse, partner, (at the time)
2 Ex-spouse, ex-partner, (at the time)
3 Boyfriend/girlfriend (at the time)
4 Ex-boyfriend/ex-girlfriend (at the time)
5 Relative
6 Close friend
7 Someone she/he works/worked with
8 None of these
9 Refuses to say
99 Don't know

Q256. Can you tell me what happened, were you just threatened, or was force actually used?

1 Just threatened
2 Force used
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1 or code 2 then continue with question 257.

Else continue with question 262.

Q257. Did (any of) the offender(s) have a knife, a gun, another weapon or something used as a weapon?

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1 then continue with question 258.

Else continue with question 260.

Q258. What was it?

1 Knife
2 Gun
3 Other weapon/stick
4 Something used as a weapon
9 Don't know

Q259. Was the weapon actually used? <<INT. COUNT WEAPON AS USED: -KNIFE/OTHER WEAPON/STICK: THREATENED WITH IT, OR VICTIM IN PHYSICAL CONTACT WITH THE WEAPON -GUN: THREATENED WITH IT OR BULLET FIRED >>

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q260. Did you suffer an injury as a result?

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 262.

Else continue with question 261.

Q261. Did you see a doctor or any other medical person as a result?

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q262. Did you or anyone else report that last incident to the police?

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1 then continue with question 264.

Else continue with question 268.

Q264. On the whole, were you satisfied with the way the police dealt with the matter?
1 Yes (satisfied)
2 No (dissatisfied)
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1 or to code 9, then continue with question 268.

If answer equal to code 2 continue with question 265.

Q265. For what reasons were you dissatisfied? You can give more than one reason.

<<INT. MULTIPLE ANSWERS ALLOWED >>
1 Didn't do enough
2 Were not interested
3 Didn't find or apprehend the offender
4 Didn't recover my property (goods)
5 Didn't keep me properly informed
6 Didn't treat me correctly/were impolite
7 Were slow to arrive
8 Other reasons
9 Don't know

Q268. Taking every thing into account, how serious was the incident for you. Was it very serious, fairly serious, or not very serious?
1 Very serious
2 Fairly serious
3 Not very serious
9 Don't know

Q269. Do you regard the incident as a crime?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1 at question 262 continue with question 270.

Else continue with question 280.

Q270. In some countries, agencies have been set up to help victims of crime by giving information, or practical or emotional support. Did you or anyone else in your household have any contact with such a specialised agency after this incident?

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 2, continue with question 271.

Else continue with question 280.

Q271. Do you feel the services of a SPECIALISED agency to help victims of crime would have been useful for you after this incident?

1 No, not useful
2 Yes useful
9 Don't know

CONSUMER FRAUD

Q280. Now changing the subject a little, Last year, in 2004 were you the victim of a consumer fraud. In other words, has someone – when selling something to you, or delivering a service – cheated you in terms of quantity or quality of the goods or services?

1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1 then continue with question 281.

Else continue with question 290.

Q281. (The last time this happened) how did this fraud take place? Was it to do with...

<INT. IF MORE THAN ONCE IN 2004, ASK ABOUT LAST TIME IN THE YEAR><INT. READ OUT >

1 Construction, building or repair work
2 Work done by a garage
3 A hotel, restaurant or pub
4 A shop of some sort
5 With shopping on the Internet (EU ICS)
5 Or something else 6)
9 Don't know

Q281a. (EU ICS) Was it a credit card fraud?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

Q282. (The last time this happened) did you or anyone else report this consumer fraud to the police?
1 Yes, to the police
2 No
9 Don't know

CORRUPTION

Q290. In some countries, there is a problem of corruption among government or public officials. During 2004, has any government official, for instance a customs officer, a police officer or inspector in your country asked you, or expected you to pay a bribe for his or her services?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1, continue with question 291.

Else continue with question 304.

Q291. (The last time this happened) what type of official was involved. Was it a government official, a customs officer, a police officer, or some sort of inspector?

<< INT. IF MORE THAN ONCE IN 2004, ASK ABOUT THE LAST TIME >>
1 Government official
2 Customs officers
3 Police officer
4 Inspector
5 Other
8 Refuses to say
9 Don't know

Q291. (EU ICS) (The last time this happened) what type of official was involved. Was it a customs officer, a police officer, a judge, a magistrate, a prosecutor, A court official or some sort of inspector (health, construction, food quality, sanitary control and licensing)? << INT. IF MORE THAN ONCE IN [:YEAR PRIOR TO CURRENT YEAR:], ASK ABOUT THE LAST TIME >>

1 Customs officers
2 Police officer
3 Judge, magistrate
4 Prosecutor
5 Court personnel
6 Inspector (health, construction, food quality, sanitary control and licensing)
7 Other
8 Refuses to say (spontaneous)
9 Don't know

Q292. (The last time) did you or anyone else report this problem of corruption to the police?
1 Yes
2 No
9 Don't know

DRUGS

EU 01. Over the last 12 months, how often were you personally in contact with drug related problems in the area where you live? For example seeing people dealing in drugs, taking or using drugs in public spaces, or finding syringes left by drug addicts? Was this often, from time to time, rarely or never?
1 Often
2 From time to time
3 Rarely
4 Never
5 Don't know

HATE CRIME

EU 02. In the past 5 years, did you, or any member of your immediate family fell victim of a crime because, or partly because of your nationality, race or colour, religious belief, or sexual orientation?
1 yes
2 no
9 Don't know (spontaneous)

If answer is equal to code 1, continue with question 901.

Else continue with question 300.

EU 03. How often did it happen in 2004?
1 once
2 twice
3 three times
4 four times
5 five times or more
9 Don't know

ATTITUDES TO CRIME

Q300. Now I would like to ask some questions about your area and about your opinion of crime in your area.

How safe do you feel walking alone in your area after dark? Do you feel very safe, fairly safe, a bit unsafe, or very unsafe?
<< INT. IF RESPONDENT SAYS 'NEVER GOES OUT', STRESS: >>
How would you feel...
1 Very safe
2 Fairly safe
3 Bit unsafe
4 Very unsafe
5 (DO NOT READ OUT) cannot walk
9 Don't know

Q302. What would you say are the chances that over the next twelve months someone will try to break into your home? Do you think this is very likely, likely or not likely?
1 Very likely
2 Likely
3 Not likely
9 Don't know

POLICING QUESTIONS

Q310. Taking everything into account, how good do you think the police in your area are at controlling crime? Do you think they do a very good job, a fairly good job, a fairly poor job or a very poor job?
1 A very good job
2 A fairly good job
3 A fairly poor job
4 A very poor job
9 Don't know

Q312. About how many people live in your village, town or city?
<INT. SEE PAPER LIST FOR GUIDANCE >

1 Less than 10,000 inhabitants
2 10,001 – 50,000
3 50,001 – 100,000
4 100,001 – 500,000
5 500,001 – 1,000,000
6 1,000,001 or more inhabitants
9 Don't know

SENTENCING

Q320. People have different ideas about the sentences, which should be given to offenders. Take for instance the case of a man of 21 years old who is found guilty of burglary/housebreaking for the second time. This time he has taken a colour TV. Which of the following sentences do you consider the most appropriate for such a case? << INT. READ OUT, REPEAT IF NECESSARY >>

1 Fine
2 Prison
3 Community service
4 Suspended sentence
5 Any other sentence
9 <<Don't know >>

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 321.

Else continue with question 330.

Q321. For how long do you think he should go to prison?

<<INT. "6-12 MONTHS" MEANS: MORE THAN 6 BUT LESS THAN 12 MONTHS >>

1 1 month or less
2 2 – 6 months
3 6 months – 12 months
4 1 year
5 2 years
6 3 years
7 4 years
8 5 years
9 6 – 10 years
10 11 – 15 years
11 16 – 20 years
12 21 – 25 years

13 More than 25 years
14 Life sentence
99 Don't know

PERSONAL AND HOUSEHOLD INFORMATION

Q330. To analyse the results of this survey, we want to look at different types of household. To help us can you give me a little information about yourself and your household?

First, could you tell me the year in which you were born?

<<INT. RECORD YEAR 19.. >>

Q331. Is the place you are living in now a flat/apartment/maisonette, a terraced home or a detached or semi-detached house?
1 Flat/apartment/maisonette
2 A terraced house/row house
3 Detached/semi-detached house
4 Institution (hospital, house for the elderly)
5 Other
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 4 then continue with 341.

Else continue with 332.

Q332. In order to help us understand why some homes are more at risk of crime than others, could I ask you a few questions about the security of your home/residence? Is your own home/residence protected by the following:...<INT. ASSURE RESPONDENT. THAT THESE DATA WILL BE TREATED CONFIDENTIALLY AND ANONYMOUSLY >< INT. READ OUT ><INT. MULTIPLE RESPONSES ALLOWED >
1 A burglar alarm
2 Special door locks
3 Special window/door grilles
4 A dog that would detect a burglar
5 A high fence
6 A caretaker or security guard
7 A formal neighbourhood watch scheme
8 Friendly arrangements with neighbours to watch each other houses
9 Not protected by any of these
88 << respondent refuses to answer >>
99 Don't know

Continue with question 341.

Q341. Do you or anyone else in your household own a handgun, shotgun, rifle, or air rifle?

1 Yes
2 No
3 Refuses to say
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 1, then continue with question 342.

Else continue with question 344.

Q342. Could you tell me which sort of gun or guns you own?

<<INT. CODE ALL GUNS IF MORE THAN ONE MENTIONED >>
<<INT. MUTLIPLE RESPONSES ALLOWED >>

1 Handgun
2 Shotgun
3 Rifle
4 Air rifle
5 Other gun
6 Refuses to say
9 Don't know

Q343. For what reason do you own the gun (guns)? << INT. MULTIPLE RESPONSE ALLOWED >>

1 For hunting
2 Target shooting (sports)
3 As part of a collection (collector's item)
4 For crime prevention/protection
5 In armed forces or the police
6 Because it has always been in our family/home
7 Other answers <<SPECIFY>>
8 Refuses to answer
9 Don't know

Q344. How often do you personally go out in the evening for recreational purposes, for instance to go to a pub, restaurant, cinema or to see friends? Is this almost every day, at least once a week, at least one a month or less?

1 Almost every day
2 At least once a week
3 At least once a month
4 Less often

5 Never
9 Don't know

Q350. How would you describe your occupational position. Are you working, keeping house, going to school or college? Or are you retired or disabled, or unemployed but looking for work?
1 Working
2 Looking for work (unemployed)
3 Keeping home (homemaker)
4 Retired, disabled
5 Going to school/college (student)
6 Other
9 Don't know

If answer is equal to code 5 then continue with question 352.

Else continue with question 351.

Q351. How many years of formal school and any higher education did you have?

<<INT. RECORD NUMBER OF YEARS >>

<<INT. COUNT PRIMARY SCHOOL, SECONDARY SCHOOL, COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY COURSES >>

Q352. Could you please tell me whether your household's combined monthly income after deductions for tax etc, is below or above [median income – xxx]?

<INT. TAKE INTO ACCOUNT THE NET INCOME. IE, THE AMOUNT PEOPLE GET IN THEIR PAY CHEQUE >
1 Below xxx
2 Above xxx
9 Don't know/refuses to say

If answer is equal to code 9 then continue with question 355.

If answer is equal to code 2 then continue with question 354.

Else continue with question 353.

Q353. Is it higher or lower than [bottom 25% limit – yyy] a month?

1 Higher than yyy
2 Lower than yyy
9 Don't know

Continue with question 355.

Q354. Is it higher or lower than [upper 25% limit – zzz] a month?
1 Higher than zzz
2 Lower than zzz
9 Don't know

Q355. How do you feel about the level of your household income. Are you satisfied with it, fairly satisfied, dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied?
1 Satisfied
2 Fairly satisfied
3 Dissatisfied
4 Very dissatisfied
9 Don't know

Q356. What is your marital status?
1 Single (not married)
2 Married
3 Living together as a couple (but not married)
4 Divorced/separated
5 Widowed
8 Refuses to say
9 Don't know

EU 04. Do you consider yourself or anyone in your family an immigrant in <COUNTRY>.

<< INT. CODE FIRST THAT APPLY – READ OUT >>
1 You are an immigrant yourself
2 Your parent(s) was/were immigrants
3 Someone in the immediate family (spouse, adopted child) is an immigrant
4 There are no immigrants in the family
8 Refuses to say (spontaneous)
9 Don't know

EU 05. Do you consider yourself as belonging to any particular religion or denomination?

1 Yes
2 No
8 Refusal
9 Don't know

EU 06. Which one? << INT. DO NOT READ OUT, CODE ONE FROM THE LIST >>

1 Christian – no denomination
2 Roman Catholic
3 Greek or Russian Orthodox
4 Other Eastern Orthodox
5 Protestant (no further detail)
6 Church of England / Anglican
7 Baptist
8 Methodist
9 Presbyterian / Church of Scotland
10 United Reformed Church / Congregationa
11 Free Presbyterian
12 Brethren
13 Other Protestant
14 Other Christian
15 Hindu
16 Sikh
17 Buddhist
18 Other Eastern Religions
19 Jewish
20 Sunni Muslim
21 Shiite Muslim
22 Other non-Christian
99 Don't know

END

Q400. Thank you very much indeed for your co-operation in this survey. We realise that we have been asking you some difficult questions. So if you like I can give you a (free) telephone number to ring to check that we are a reputable survey research company and that we have carried out the survey at the request of.... << INT. NOTE DOWN YOUR SEX >>

1 Male
2 Female

9.1 Tables on victimisation

Table 1 One year prevalence victimisation rates in countries (percentages). 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Overall victimisation for 10 crimes conistent over 5 sweeps	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (1c)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual offences against women	Sexual offences against men (1a)	Assaults & threats
Australia	1989	23.3	2.3	6.9	8.8	0.3	1.9	4.4	3.8	0.9	5.0	7.3		5.2
	1992	24.0	3.1	6.6	9.5	0.3	2.1	3.7	3.8	1.3	6.5	3.5		4.7
	2000	25.2	1.9	6.8	9.2	0.1	2.0	3.9	3.3	1.2	6.5	4.0	0.7	6.4
	2004***	16.3	1.1	4.5		0.1	1.2	2.5	2.4	0.9	3.6			3.4
Austria	1996	13.9	0.1	1.6	6.7	0.0	3.3	0.9	0.5	0.2	5.0	3.8		2.1
	2005*	11.6	0.1	2.4		0.0	2.0	0.9	1.4	0.4	3.4	2.2	0.2	1.8
Belgium	1989	13.4	0.8	2.7	6.6	0.4	2.7	2.3	2.3	1.0	4.0	1.3		2.1
	1992	15.2	1.0	3.9	6.1	1.1	2.8	2.1	1.6	1.0	3.1	1.4		1.8
	2000	17.5	0.7	3.6	6.1	0.3	3.5	2.0	2.8	1.0	4.1	1.1		3.2
	2005*	17.7	0.5	4.2		0.1	4.2	1.8	2.4	1.2	3.4	0.9	0.2	3.6
Bulgaria	2004	14.1	1.2	3.3	1.8	0.0	1.1	2.5	2.6	0.9	3.4	0.2		1.7
Canada	1989	22.4	0.8	7.2	9.8	0.4	3.4	3.0	2.7	1.1	5.5	4.0		3.9
	1992	24.0	1.3	7.3	8.5	0.2	3.7	3.4	2.7	1.2	5.5	3.8		4.8
	1996	21.8	1.5	6.2	6.2	0.1	3.3	3.4	2.8	1.2	5.7	2.7		4.0
	2000	20.5	1.4	5.4	5.5	0.1	3.5	2.3	2.3	0.9	4.7	2.1	0.7	5.3
	2004	17.2	0.8	4.8		0.2	2.7	2.0	1.7	0.8	4.0	2.3	0.2	3.0
Denmark	2000	20.6	1.1	3.4	3.8	0.7	6.7	3.1	1.5	0.7	4.1	2.5		3.6
	2005*	18.8	1.3	2.6		0.3	6.0	2.7	1.6	0.9	3.3	1.9	1.3	3.3
England & Wales	1989	15.2	1.8	5.6	6.8	0.1	1.0	2.1	1.7	0.7	3.1	1.1		1.9
	1992	23.9	3.7	8.6	10.6	0.4	3.0	3.0	2.9	1.1	4.2	2.1		3.8
	1996	25.4	2.5	8.1	10.4	0.2	3.5	3.0	3.4	1.4	5.0	2.0		5.9
	2000	22.3	2.1	6.4	8.8	0.4	2.4	2.8	2.8	1.2	4.6	2.7		6.1
	2005*	21.8	1.8	6.0		0.8	2.6	3.5	2.7	1.4	6.3	1.9	0.5	5.8
Estonia	1993	27.6	0.7	7.3	3.2	0.7	6.2	6.0	3.2	3.1	7.8	2.2		5.0
	1995	28.3	1.8	7.7	5.8	0.2	5.2	4.2	4.0	3.4	5.2	2.0		5.7

Table 1 (Continued)

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Overall victimisation for 10 crimes conistent over 5 sweeps	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (1c)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual offences against women	Sexual offences against men (1a)	Assaults & threats
Estonia (cont.)	2000	26.0	0.9	9.1	5.9		4.0	3.7	3.0	2.8	5.4	3.4		6.3
	2004	20.2	0.5	6.0	4.6		3.6	2.5	1.4	1.6	5.6	1.1	0.0	2.7
Finland	1989	13.0	0.4	2.7	4.0	0.0	3.1	0.6	0.4	0.7	4.3	0.5		2.9
	1992	17.2	0.7	2.9	5.6	0.3	5.0	0.6	0.6	1.0	3.4	3.7		4.4
	1996	16.2	0.4	2.9	4.3	0.2	5.1	0.6	0.7	0.5	3.2	2.5		4.1
	2000	16.6	0.4	2.9	3.7	0.1	4.9	0.3	1.0	0.6	3.3	3.7		4.2
	2005*	12.7	0.4	2.2		0.1	5.2	0.8	0.5	0.3	2.3	1.4	0.3	2.2
France	1989	16.4	2.4	6.0	6.4	0.6	1.4	2.4	2.3	0.4	3.6	1.1		2.0
	1996	20.8	1.6	7.2	8.3	0.8	2.8	2.3	2.2	1.0	4.0	0.9		3.9
	2000	17.2	1.7	5.5	8.2	0.3	1.8	1.0	1.3	1.1	3.0	1.1		4.2
	2005*	12.0	0.6	3.2		0.3	0.9	1.6	1.2	0.8	3.3	0.4	0.0	2.1
Germany	1989	16.6	0.4	4.7	8.7	0.2	3.3	1.3	1.8	0.8	4.0	2.8		3.1
	2005*	13.1	0.2	2.0		0.2	3.4	0.9	1.3	0.4	3.0	2.4	0.8	2.7
Greece	2005*	12.3	0.3	1.8		0.6	2.1	1.8	1.7	1.4	5.3	1.7	0.5	2.4
Hungary	2005*	10.0	0.2	2.1		0.0	1.7	1.7	0.8	0.9	3.0	0.1	0.2	1.2
Iceland	2005	21.2	1.0	3.8		0.1	4.6	1.6	1.6	0.8	6.9	3.0	0.7	5.9
Ireland	2005*	21.9	1.2	5.2		0.3	2.5	2.3	1.7	2.2	7.2	3.8	0.6	4.9
Italy	1992	20.3	2.7	7.0	7.6	1.5	2.3	2.4	1.7	1.3	3.6	1.7		0.8
	2005*	12.6	1.0	2.4		1.0	2.1	2.1	2.5	0.3	2.4	0.7	0.3	0.8
Japan	2000	11.9	0.1	1.6	4.4	1.0	6.6	1.1	0.8	0.1	0.5	1.2		0.4
	2004	9.9	0.1	1.1	3.7	0.7	5.1	0.9	0.7	0.2	0.3	1.3	0.0	0.6
Luxembourg	2005*	12.7	0.6	2.8		0.0	1.6	1.7	2.7	0.7	2.9	0.6	0.0	2.3
Mexico	2004	18.7	0.9	4.1		0.0	3.7	3.0	3.0	3.0	4.3	1.5	0.3	2.2
Netherlands	1989	21.9	0.3	5.2	8.2	0.4	7.5	2.4	2.6	0.8	4.4	2.6		3.3
	1992	25.7	0.5	6.8	9.6	1.0	10.0	2.0	3.0	1.0	4.6	2.2		4.0
	1996	26.0	0.4	5.4	9.9	0.7	9.5	2.6	3.3	0.6	6.8	3.6		4.0
	2000	20.2	0.4	3.9	8.9	0.6	7.0	1.9	2.7	0.8	4.7	3.0		3.4

Table 1 (Continued)

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Overall victimisation for 10 crimes conistent over 5 sweeps	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (1c)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual offences against women	Sexual offences against men (1a)	Assaults & threats
Netherlands (cont.)	2005*	19.7	1.0	3.9		0.4	6.6	1.3	1.4	0.5	3.7	1.9	1.4	4.3
New Zealand	1992	25.7	2.7	6.9	7.9	0.3	4.4	4.3	3.6	0.7	5.3	2.7		5.7
	2004	21.5	1.8	6.6		0.1	1.4	3.2	3.1	1.1	4.1	2.5	0.7	4.9
Northern Ireland	1989	12.0	1.6	4.0	4.4	0.1	1.6	1.1	0.9	0.5	2.2	1.9		1.8
	1996	11.8	1.6	3.1	6.7	0.0	1.2	1.5	1.1	0.5	2.5	1.2		1.7
	2000	11.7	1.2	2.7	4.5	0.0	1.4	1.7	0.9	0.1	2.2	0.6		3.0
	2005*	20.4	1.4	4.9		0.3	1.9	1.4	2.2	1.1	5.1	3.0	1.0	6.8
Norway	1989	13.4	1.1	2.8	4.6	0.3	2.8	0.7	0.4	0.5	3.2	2.2		3.0
	2004	15.8	0.7	2.6		0.3	4.2	1.2	0.9	0.8	4.8	2.5	0.4	2.9
Poland	1992	24.6	0.7	5.3	4.7	1.0	4.2	2.1	2.3	1.7	8.1	3.6		4.2
	1996	20.5	0.9	5.7	5.4	0.3	3.2	2.0	1.8	1.8	5.6	1.5		3.7
	2000	19.1	1.0	5.5	7.0	0.1	3.6	2.0	1.3	1.8	5.3	0.5		2.8
	2004	15.0	0.7	3.9	0.0	0.1	2.6	1.4	1.1	1.3	3.5	1.3		3.0
Portugal	2000	11.3	0.9	4.9	6.3	0.3	0.8	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.9	0.6		0.9
	2005*	10.4	1.5	5.0		0.0	0.5	1.4	0.8	1.0	1.6	0.5	0.3	0.9
Scotland	1989	13.9	0.8	5.4	6.5	0.3	1.0	2.0	2.1	0.5	2.6	1.2		1.8
	1996	19.6	1.7	6.6	9.8	0.1	1.9	1.5	2.4	0.8	4.5	1.3		4.2
	2000	17.5	0.7	4.2	9.0	0.1	2.0	1.5	1.9	0.7	4.6	1.1		6.1
	2005*	13.3	0.3	2.3		0.2	1.9	1.5	2.0	0.9	2.9	1.5	0.2	3.8
Spain	1989	21.8	1.4	9.6	6.6	0.8	1.1	1.6	2.1	3.1	5.2	2.3		3.1
	2005*	9.1	1.0	2.7		0.3	0.7	0.8	0.4	1.3	2.1	0.3	0.4	1.6
Sweden	1992	18.7	1.7	3.9	4.5	0.6	7.0	1.4	0.8	0.3	4.2	0.9		2.7
	1996	22.0	1.2	4.9	4.6	0.5	8.8	1.3	1.1	0.5	4.6	2.9		4.5
	2000	22.6	1.3	5.3	4.6	0.4	7.2	1.7	0.7	0.9	5.8	2.6		3.8
	2005*	16.1	0.5	4.2		0.6	5.0	0.7	0.1	1.1	2.4	3.3	0.5	3.5
Switzerland	1989	13.0	0.0	1.9	4.1	1.2	3.2	1.0	0.2	0.5	4.5	1.7		1.2
	1996	21.6	0.1	3.0	7.1	1.4	7.0	1.3	1.1	0.9	5.7	4.6		3.1

Table 1 (Continued)

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Overall victimisation for 10 crimes conistent over 5 sweeps	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (1c)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual offences against women	Sexual offences against men (1a)	Assaults & threats
Switzerland (cont.)	2000	15.6	0.3	1.7	3.9	0.2	4.7	1.1	1.8	0.7	4.4	2.1		2.4
	2005	18.1	0.2	2.9		0.6	4.6	1.6	1.2	0.8	5.9	2.9	0.5	2.5
United Kingdom	1989**	15.0	1.8	5.6	6.7	0.1	1.0	2.1	1.7	0.7	3.1	1.2		1.9
	1996**	24.5	2.4	7.8	10.2	0.2	3.3	2.8	3.2	1.3	4.9	1.9		5.6
	2000**	21.6	1.9	6.1	8.7	0.3	2.3	2.7	2.7	1.1	4.6	2.5		6.0
	2005*	21.0	1.8	5.8		0.7	2.7	3.3	2.6	1.3	5.7	1.9	0.5	5.4
USA	1989	25.0	2.1	9.2	8.9	0.1	3.0	3.8	5.4	1.9	4.5	4.5		5.4
	1992	22.2	2.6	7.0	8.0	0.4	2.9	3.1	3.9	1.5	5.3	2.3		4.7
	1996	21.5	1.9	7.5	6.7	0.2	3.3	2.6	3.0	1.3	3.9	2.5		5.7
	2000	17.6	0.5	6.4	7.2	0.3	2.1	1.8	2.7	0.6	4.9	1.5		3.4
	2004	17.5	1.1	5.2		0.3	2.9	2.5	2.6	0.6	4.8	3.6	0.6	4.3
Averages (2)(3)	1st sweep	17.2	1.2	5.3	6.7	0.4	2.6	2.0	2.0	1.0	4.0	2.5		2.9
	2nd sweep	22.4	1.8	6.1	7.2	0.6	4.5	2.8	2.5	1.3	5.1	2.5		3.9
	3rd sweep	20.3	1.3	5.4	6.8	0.3	4.1	2.0	2.0	1.1	4.6	2.3		4.0
	4th sweep	18.4	1.0	4.7	6.3	0.3	3.8	2.0	1.9	1.0	4.1	2.0	0.7	3.8
	5th sweep	15.7	0.8	3.6		0.3	2.9	1.8	1.7	1.0	3.8	1.7	0.4	3.0

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Data for United Kingdom 1989,1996 and 2000 are computed using the separate surveys for England & Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland (weighted by population size).

*** The Australian 2004 questionnaire deviated from the standard for sexual offences; these data are omitted. The overall victimisation rate is about 1% lower for that reason.

(1a) Sexual offences against men were asked in Canada and Australia in 2000, but an average score for the 2000 sweep of survey is not computed. (1c) Car vandalism is dropped in the 5th sweep.

(2) Averages apply to all surveys participating in a sweep of surveys, since not every country participated every time, these averages need to be interpreted with caution (UK excluded to avoid double count).

(3) 1st sweep: 1989 -- 2nd sweep 1992 -- 3rd sweep 1995/97 -- 4th sweep 1999-2000 -- 5th sweep 2004/05.

(4) Sexual assaults against near 0.1% on average in the countries where this question was asked .

Table 2 **One year prevalence victimisation rates in main cities (percentages) 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		10 crimes (1)	Car theft	Theft from car	Motorcycle theft	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual incidents against women	Sexual incidents (men)	Assaults & threats
Amsterdam (Netherlands)	2005*	27.0	0.7	4.2	0.4	12.0	2.1	1.8	1.1	4.4	3.2	0.7	5.9
Athens (Greece)	2005 *	13.5	0.7	3.7	0.5	0.9	1.7	1.9	0.7	3.5	1.1	0.0	2.4
Belfast (Northern Ireland)	2005	26.1	1.9	6.7	0.2	2.6	2.9	3.5	2.5	5.9	2.0	0.2	9.2
Berlin (Germany)	2005 *	19.3	0.4	3.9	0.6	4.1	1.1	1.3	1.2	5.2	2.5	1.3	4.1
Brussels (Belgium)	2005 *	20.2	0.9	6.2	0.0	1.7	3.1	2.5	2.5	6.0	0.2	0.4	2.6
Budapest (Hungary)	2005 *	12.6	0.4	2.2	0.0	1.6	1.2	1.0	1.1	5.5	0.3	0.0	1.6
Buenos Aires (Argentina)	2004	31.2	2.1	7.2	0.5	4.2	2.0	3.4	10.0	6.6	2.1		3.2
Copenhagen (Denmark)	2005 *	22.9	1.0	1.5	0.4	9.3	2.6	1.2	1.2	4.6	3.8	2.6	3.6
Dublin (Ireland)	2005 *	25.7	3.0	6.2	0.5	4.0	2.6	4.0	1.8	6.8	0.8	0.5	3.9
Edinburgh (Scotland)	2005	16.6	0.4	3.2	0.1	2.7	1.4	2.1	1.2	4.6	1.2	0.6	4.6
Johannesburg (RSA)	2004	23.5	2.6	3.3	0.0	1.3	5.4	3.6	5.5	6.9	1.7		11.2
Helsinki (Finland)	2005 *	20.5	1.7	4.2	0.1	4.0	4.4	0.5	1.4	3.0	4.3	0.4	4.5
Hong Kong (SAR China)	2005	7.8	0.0	0.5	0.1	1.7	0.6	0.4	0.4	3.6	1.2		1.2
Istanbul (Turkey)	2005	17.9	0.9	3.5	0.0	1.1	4.6	4.1	0.9	3.2	2.5		0.6
Lima (Peru)	2005	**	0.3	4.5	0.2	2.9	6.8	13.0	7.4	12.3	4.7		**
Lisbon (Portugal)	2005 *	9.7	2.0	2.9	0.1	0.7	0.7	0.6	1.9	2.4	0.4	0.2	1.3
London (England)	2005 *	32.0	1.3	8.5	0.5	4.7	4.5	5.1	2.6	10.2	3.0	0.5	8.6
Madrid (Spain)	2005 *	13.7	1.8	3.9	0.1	0.2	1.1	1.3	1.5	4.4	0.7	0.5	2.9
Maputo (Mozambique)	2002	37.7	1.9	5.3	0.3	0.8	12.6	9.5	7.6	9.9	2.6		6.2
New York (USA)	2004	23.3	1.6	6.6	0.0	3.0	1.9	2.4	2.3	7.7	3.5		5.1
Oslo (Norway)	2004	21.5	1.0	3.5	0.2	4.6	1.9	2.1	1.0	7.5	2.3		4.1
Paris (France)	2005 *	17.8	0.2	3.0	1.0	2.7	1.9	2.0	1.2	4.8	0.5	0.0	3.1
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	2002	41.3	0.2	4.4	6.6	5.3	15.8	7.6	1.8	12.8	1.4		6.8
Reykjavik (Iceland)	2004	26.4	1.0	4.6	0.1	6.2	2.2	2.7	0.7	8.2	2.6		7.0
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	2002	15.0	1.7	1.2	0.5	2.5	1.0	1.3	5.1	2.5	1.3		1.5
Rome (Italy)	2005 *	16.6	3.4	5.4	0.9	0.3	1.5	2.1	0.7	3.2	0.9	0.0	1.2

Table 2 (Continued)

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		10 crimes (1)	Car theft	Theft from car	Motorcycle theft	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual incidents against women	Sexual incidents (men)	Assaults & threats
Sao Paulo (Brazil)	2002	21.7	4.2	4.4	0.9	1.8	1.5	2.5	5.4	2.9	1.3		2.6
Stockholm (Sweden)	2005 *	22.6	1.8	7.2	0.2	7.0	2.1	1.3	0.7	4.0	0.8	1.3	3.2
Sydney (Australia)	2004	15.9	0.7	4.9	0.2	1.2	2.2	2.0	1.1	3.7	***	***	2.8
Tallinn (Estonia)	2004	29.3	0.6	8.4		3.3	3.7	2.9	2.8	9.6	1.4		3.7
Vienna (Austria)	2005 *	17.2	0.4	4.5	0.1	2.0	2.8	1.6	0.8	5.7	1.3	0.1	2.5
Warsaw (Poland)	2005	21.9	1.6	5.0	0.0	4.8	2.4	2.1	2.8	5.3	2.3		2.6
Zurich (Switzerland)	2005	20.1	0.2	1.9	0.8	4.6	2.7	1.7	1.7	7.7	3.1		3.5
Average		21.5	1.3	4.4	0.5	3.3	3.2	2.9	2.4	5.9	1.9	0.6	4.0

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The peruvian questionnaire deviated from the standard for Assaults and threats, these data are ommited.

*** The Australian 2004 questionnaire deviated from the standard for sexual offences; these data are omitted. The overall victimisation rate is about 1% lower for that reason.

(1) In some countries, the questions on sexual offences were not asked to men.

(4) Sexual assaults against near 0.1% on average in the countries where this question was asked.

Table 3 **Five year prevalence victimisation rates in countries (percentages). 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

		Overall victimisation for 10 crimes conistent over 5 sweeps	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (1c)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual offences against women	Sexual offences against men (1a)	Assaults & threats
Australia	1989	51.3	8.0	17.3	20.8	0.5	5.7	16.6	11.6	2.4	14.6	13.5		11.6
	1992	53.4	10.4	18.8	24.5	0.9	6.7	14.1	11.7	3.7	16.1	8.9		12.5
	2000	59.6	8.2	20.4	24.7	0.8	8.0	14.5	11.9	3.7	17.9	7.2	2.0	19.0
	2004***		6.6	20.0		0.6	6.1	12.5	9.7	3.6	14.7			9.3
Austria	1996	34.5	0.6	5.3	15.9	0.3	10.6	2.6	2.3	1.1	12.8	10.2		6.1
	2005*	40.4	1.1	9.2		0.4	10.7	4.2	4.6	2.2	16.4	6.5	0.4	8.6
Belgium	1989	41.8	4.1	8.7	17.9	1.4	9.8	7.7	8.1	4.0	14.9	4.9		6.3
	1992	41.3	3.7	12.5	17.7	2.4	13.1	6.6	5.5	3.2	10.9	3.1		4.3
	2000	48.3	3.8	13.1	19.5	1.6	12.3	9.3	10.2	3.0	15.2	5.2		9.8
	2005*	50.7	3.7	14.1		0.8	13.4	10.7	8.9	4.4	13.8	2.4	0.9	9.3
Bulgaria	2004	36.0	3.8	11.9	7.1	0.3	4.6	9.7	5.5	2.7	10.9	0.9		5.2
Canada	1989	46.6	2.8	18.5	18.8	0.6	12.4	10.2	7.9	2.6	13.2	10.1		8.8
	1992	48.7	3.9	20.4	21.1	0.8	11.0	10.0	7.2	3.3	15.4	10.7		12.7
	1996	52.1	4.6	20.8	20.0	0.3	12.7	10.1	8.1	3.4	15.8	9.4		12.7
	2000	48.7	5.7	18.4	21.0	0.4	12.0	9.4	7.5	3.1	15.3	5.3	2.0	14.2
	2004	47.4	5.5	16.6		0.7	10.6	8.4	6.9	2.8	14.1	4.8	1.2	11.3
Denmark	2000	51.0	5.4	9.6	11.3	1.8	23.4	9.5	4.7	2.2	13.4	6.1		9.0
	2005*	52.2	4.8	11.2		2.1	23.0	10.9	6.9	3.0	11.9	4.6	3.0	9.6
England & Wales	1989	38.9	6.6	13.4	17.3	0.4	3.9	9.4	6.0	1.9	8.3	3.4		5.3
	1992	53.1	9.8	22.7	26.8	1.9	7.6	10.9	9.1	2.6	12.0	5.9		11.7
	1996	56.1	10.7	23.2	26.2	1.4	9.8	11.8	10.7	3.1	13.2	5.8		13.0
	2000	52.2	8.6	20.8	23.1	1.1	7.1	11.3	9.2	3.8	14.1	6.2		15.0
	2005*	49.7	7.2	20.0		2.1	7.9	9.5	8.5	6.2	14.8	3.8	2.2	13.8
Estonia	1993	52.9	2.3	14.9	7.7	2.9	21.0	17.2	9.1	7.7	17.4	5.7		11.2
	1995	53.8	4.1	18.4	11.8	1.0	18.6	13.0	8.5	7.8	13.0	3.9		11.8
	2000	56.3	3.4	21.6	14.0		13.2	15.0	10.0	8.5	15.9	8.8		15.4

Table 3 (Continued)

		Overall victimisation for 10 crimes conistent over 5 sweeps	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (1c)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual offences against women	Sexual offences against men (1a)	Assaults & threats
Estonia (cont.)	2004	58.2	3.5	17.4	12.1		13.7	13.6	9.3	7.5	18.2	2.8	1.3	8.7
Finland	1989	35.2	1.6	8.2	10.5	0.2	14.1	2.0	2.3	2.7	10.3	4.3		9.6
	1992	40.4	1.5	9.3	13.8	0.9	14.7	1.5	2.2	2.7	10.2	10.3		12.1
	1996	39.5	2.2	9.2	13.2	0.9	16.0	2.0	2.3	1.8	9.8	7.3		10.0
	2000	41.7	2.7	9.0	11.1	0.5	16.8	1.5	2.6	2.6	9.9	8.9		11.7
	2005*	41.9	3.5	10.6		0.5	18.7	4.6	2.6	1.9	9.4	3.3	1.5	10.4
France	1989	47.7	7.2	21.1	19.6	2.9	6.6	10.4	8.9	2.9	12.9	4.3		7.0
	1996	52.1	8.9	23.7	25.0	3.5	8.9	9.9	9.6	4.0	13.4	3.5		11.6
	2000	44.0	6.4	17.5	23.7	3.1	6.7	6.6	4.8	4.1	10.7	3.2		12.0
	2005*	40.5	4.3	15.9		1.2	4.8	7.9	5.2	2.6	11.3	1.4	0.1	8.9
Germany	1989	43.3	1.9	14.8	22.1	0.9	12.4	4.7	5.6	3.0	13.3	7.9		9.3
	2005*	43.1	2.0	10.1		0.6	13.9	3.5	5.2	1.8	14.7	6.5	1.7	12.1
Greece	2005*	46.1	4.9	15.4		4.5	4.2	10.2	8.7	4.6	17.9	7.5	5.3	6.7
Hungary	2005*	42.2	2.3	11.5		0.7	10.6	8.4	6.3	2.8	14.7	1.5	0.8	6.3
Iceland	2005	50.0	2.8	14.1		0.4	17.6	4.2	5.0	2.0	19.8	5.2	1.4	15.9
Ireland	2005*	44.8	5.1	12.5		1.1	9.1	7.4	5.3	5.2	16.3	5.2	2.1	14.0
Italy	1992	47.9	6.7	21.8	18.6	3.6	7.6	8.6	6.7	4.8	9.8	6.4		3.4
	2005*	43.3	6.3	10.2		2.9	8.1	10.5	7.8	2.6	10.7	1.7	0.5	4.1
Japan	2000	34.4	0.6	4.9	14.5	4.2	22.8	4.0	2.6	0.7	2.9	3.2		1.9
	2004	32.4	0.5	6.7	13.9	3.1	20.2	3.6	2.6	0.4	0.7	3.0		1.1
Luxembourg	2005*	50.6	4.0	15.0		0.3	6.9	11.2	10.2	5.9	18.0	4.9	2.2	9.8
Mexico	2004	45.5	3.6	12.7		0.3	12.9	11.0	10.5	9.9	12.6	3.7	1.5	7.2
Netherlands	1989	54.2	1.8	15.2	21.6	1.3	24.8	8.8	9.3	2.0	14.2	6.4		9.2
	1992	58.3	2.1	19.1	24.6	2.8	28.6	9.9	10.4	2.8	14.2	6.5		10.4
	1996	59.3	2.8	19.3	25.0	2.7	26.7	9.8	11.6	2.5	17.7	8.3		10.7
	2000	54.2	3.0	14.8	23.1	2.9	23.9	9.0	10.8	3.5	15.1	9.0		10.1

Table 3 (Continued)

		Overall victimisation for 10 crimes conistent over 5 sweeps	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (1c)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual offences against women	Sexual offences against men (1a)	Assaults & threats
Netherlands (cont.)	2005*	58.3	2.8	17.1		1.5	28.9	6.4	7.1	3.4	15.0	6.1	3.5	13.9
New Zealand	1992	58.0	10.5	22.1	21.4	1.5	12.7	15.6	9.5	2.6	16.8	8.9		16.1
	2004	56.6	7.4	23.5		0.8	6.0	16.1	10.0	3.6	15.6	7.2	2.7	17.5
Northern Ireland	1989	28.8	5.2	8.5	10.2	0.4	4.0	4.7	2.9	1.5	6.1	3.3		4.3
	1996	34.1	6.7	11.7	15.4	0.2	4.3	5.2	3.2	1.5	9.0	2.9		7.0
	2000	33.7	7.2	8.7	15.6	0.2	5.2	5.6	3.4	1.0	6.4	2.1		7.5
	2005*	43.7	7.5	13.3		0.7	4.1	6.6	6.7	3.1	14.4	4.7	2.2	15.1
Norway	1989	34.7	2.7	9.0	11.2	0.6	12.5	3.1	2.3	1.5	8.3	4.6		8.2
	2004	47.9	3.6	12.4		1.0	16.7	4.9	3.4	2.4	18.4	5.5	1.4	10.5
Poland	1992	50.1	1.9	11.7	9.1	2.5	15.6	5.9	4.2	3.9	19.8	5.7		8.1
	1996	44.9	2.4	13.1	12.6	1.0	11.2	5.6	4.5	4.1	15.6	3.9		8.0
	2000	42.0	2.9	14.0	14.3	0.5	11.7	5.2	3.6	3.9	13.9	1.6		7.2
	2004	42.1	2.6	12.4	0.0	0.5	10.4	6.1	4.3	5.1	13.3	3.5		8.7
Portugal	2000	30.3	2.8	13.7	15.0	0.8	2.9	5.8	3.9	5.1	6.6	3.1		4.1
	2005*	34.5	6.6	15.8		0.9	2.4	5.4	4.1	5.1	7.9	2.0	1.6	5.5
Scotland	1989	34.8	5.3	12.9	14.9	0.5	3.2	9.0	5.8	1.8	6.7	2.9		5.3
	1996	45.5	6.7	18.2	25.6	0.4	5.3	7.8	6.8	3.0	11.7	4.2		11.5
	2000	42.9	4.5	14.5	20.4	0.2	6.2	5.6	6.2	2.2	12.5	3.5		14.0
	2005*	43.0	4.7	13.1		0.5	6.0	7.3	6.6	3.4	12.4	4.6	1.9	15.1
Spain	1989	47.2	5.2	24.0	16.2	2.0	3.4	5.7	6.6	9.2	13.5	7.0		7.7
	2005*	42.7	6.1	18.1		1.9	3.2	5.2	4.5	5.9	12.4	1.4	1.0	9.7
Sweden	1992	49.1	5.7	15.2	15.5	1.3	21.5	4.8	3.3	1.3	14.1	4.1		9.7
	1996	50.6	5.3	16.5	15.2	1.3	26.4	4.7	3.5	1.8	14.2	6.3		11.4
	2000	54.2	5.1	16.7	13.7	1.7	24.9	5.5	3.2	2.3	14.7	7.5		11.6
	2005*	51.1	4.5	16.6		2.0	22.2	4.0	2.8	2.7	11.3	6.0	1.0	12.5
Switzerland	1989	41.3	0.9	8.4	13.4	4.1	12.8	4.0	2.1	2.2	15.9	5.6		3.9

Table 3 (Continued)

		Overall victimisation for 10 crimes conistent over 5 sweeps	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (1c)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual offences against women	Sexual offences against men (1a)	Assaults & threats
Switzerland (cont.)	1996	50.8	1.1	10.5	21.3	2.9	21.6	6.0	4.7	2.6	19.2	10.2		7.2
	2000	47.5	1.9	7.7	16.8	1.5	17.1	5.4	7.0	2.6	18.0	7.6		8.4
	2005	50.0	1.2	10.0		1.5	16.4	8.1	6.7	3.0	19.3	6.5	2.4	8.9
United Kingdom	1989**	38.3	6.5	13.2	16.9	0.4	3.8	9.2	5.9	1.9	8.1	3.3		5.3
	1996**	54.6	10.2	22.4	25.8	1.3	9.3	11.2	10.1	3.1	13.0	5.6		12.7
	2000**	50.9	8.2	19.9	22.7	1.0	7.0	10.7	8.8	3.6	13.7	5.8		14.7
	2005*	48.3	7.2	18.9		1.9	7.8	9.3	8.1	5.9	13.8	4.9	1.9	13.4
USA	1989	53.5	6.3	26.7	21.6	0.4	9.4	13.7	13.5	5.5	14.2	10.4		12.7
	1992	46.1	7.0	19.4	18.9	1.3	9.4	9.6	9.5	3.9	12.9	7.7		10.5
	1996	48.8	6.4	21.2	20.6	1.2	10.5	10.2	9.1	3.7	14.1	8.5		16.3
	2000	41.8	3.8	15.4	18.3	0.5	9.7	7.6	6.6	3.0	13.2	7.3		12.8
	2004	40.2	3.9	15.2		0.4	7.3	6.0	6.5	2.0	14.0	10.7	1.2	11.2
Averages (2)(3)	1st sweep	42.8	4.3	14.8	16.9	1.2	9.6	7.8	6.6	3.1	11.9	6.3		7.8
	2nd sweep	49.9	5.5	17.3	18.3	1.9	14.1	9.6	7.4	3.5	14.1	7.0		10.2
	3rd sweep	46.9	5.0	16.0	18.6	1.2	13.0	7.4	6.1	3.2	13.5	6.3		10.5
	4th sweep	46.0	4.5	14.2	17.7	1.4	13.2	7.7	6.4	3.3	12.7	5.6	2.0	10.8
	5th sweep	45.7	4.2	14.1	8.3	1.2	11.4	7.9	6.4	3.7	13.8	4.4	1.7	10.0

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Data for United Kingdom 1989,1996 and 2000 are computed using the separate surveys for England & Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland (weighted by population size).

*** The Australian 2004 questionnaire deviated from the standard for sexual offences; these data are omitted and no overall victimisation rate is computed.

(1a) Sexual offences against men were asked in Canada and Australia in 2000, but an average score for the 2000 sweep of survey is not computed. (1c) Car vandalism is dropped in the 5th sweep.

(2) Averages apply to all surveys participating in a sweep of surveys, since not every country participated every time, these averages need to be interpreted with caution (UK excluded to avoid double count).

(3) 1st sweep: 1989 -- 2nd sweep 1992 -- 3rd sweep 1995/97 -- 4th sweep 1999-2000 -- 5th sweep 2004/05.

Table 4 **Five year prevalence victimisation rates in main cities (percentages) 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		10 crimes (1)	Car theft	Theft from car	Motorcycle theft	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual incidents against women	Sexual incidents (men)	Assaults & threats
Amsterdam (Netherlands)	2005*	70.4	2.5	20.4	2.6	38.8	10.2	12.9	5.0	20.3	11.3	3.4	21.2
Athens (Greece)	2005 *	55.6	4.3	16.4	3.9	2.6	9.6	12.0	3.6	25.2	11.3	1.3	9.0
Belfast (Northern Ireland)	2005	50.6	9.5	15.5	0.7	6.7	10.1	8.0	6.2	15.9	6.0	2.2	19.5
Berlin (Germany)	2005 *	56.9	3.7	13.9	1.9	19.9	7.5	5.8	4.7	20.7	9.3	1.6	16.2
Brussels (Belgium)	2005 *	56.7	5.4	22.0	0.6	5.7	15.5	10.1	8.2	20.0	1.4	0.4	9.8
Budapest (Hungary)	2005 *	53.7	5.1	17.4	0.7	8.3	13.5	10.0	5.2	23.0	2.8	0.3	9.3
Buenos Aires (Argentina)	2004	68.9	10.7	21.2	2.0	12.2	9.2	10.3	27.6	23.7	5.0	0.9	8.1
Copenhagen (Denmark)	2005 *	66.9	3.9	9.3	2.1	34.1	13.0	8.5	6.1	22.0	16.3	5.4	15.4
Dublin (Ireland)	2005 *	56.7	11.1	16.9	1.8	10.5	12.4	11.4	4.4	18.0	3.9	1.9	11.3
Edinburgh (Scotland)	2005	49.0	3.9	15.3	0.8	10.3	7.8	7.5	5.0	16.4	7.0	1.8	17.7
Johannesburg (RSA)	2004	65.3	7.4	13.0	0.2	5.7	20.0	12.8	20.0	24.8	10.5	3.3	16.7
Helsinki (Finland)	2005 *	58.7	6.9	12.9	1.2	18.4	14.3	5.1	5.4	14.6	3.5	1.9	18.3
Hong Kong (SAR China)	2005	26.3	0.6	2.4	0.4	5.7	2.6	2.2	1.8	13.2	6.1	0.6	3.6
Istanbul (Turkey)	2005	49.2	4.1	11.4	0.1	5.1	17.0	14.8	4.1	12.8	8.1		3.3
Lima (Peru)	2005	**	1.4	10.5	0.4	9.9	21.5	30.0	18.3	27.7	8.5	1.9	**
Lisbon (Portugal)	2005 *	38.5	9.7	15.2	0.5	2.8	5.0	4.4	7.9	12.9	2.1	1.1	6.9
London (England)	2005 *	61.4	5.8	21.1	1.6	9.8	14.0	13.5	8.6	24.9	7.7	1.6	20.4
Madrid (Spain)	2005 *	53.7	11.9	23.7	0.9	1.3	5.0	6.2	7.4	18.9	2.9	1.0	11.9
Maputo (Mozambique)	2002	83.9	4.9	16.0	1.1	4.4	48.2	32.3	27.7	34.7	12.4		22.5
New York (USA)	2004	46.5	4.7	16.3	0.1	7.7	6.5	7.0	5.8	18.4	11.3	2.9	13.2
Oslo (Norway)	2004	63.0	5.8	17.1	0.8	20.3	7.6	7.1	3.7	30.0	12.8	2.3	13.4
Paris (France)	2005 *	57.0	5.5	14.3	3.3	9.3	8.1	10.0	5.7	20.4	4.9	0.5	11.0
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	2002	72.9	0.6	9.6	21.4	16.0	34.0	19.8	7.3	31.0	2.6		11.9
Reykjavik (Iceland)	2004	58.5	2.6	18.6	0.6	19.4	5.2	6.9	2.4	25.6	9.9	1.2	17.9
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	2002	43.8	6.8	5.6	2.1	12.4	5.4	5.5	17.4	10.4	3.0		6.8
Rome (Italy)	2005 *	53.5	12.9	18.5	4.6	3.3	10.4	9.9	3.3	15.6	4.3	0.0	4.2

Table 4 (Continued)

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		10 crimes (1)	Car theft	Theft from car	Motorcycle theft	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual incidents against women	Sexual incidents (men)	Assaults & threats
Sao Paulo (Brazil)	2002	49.8	10.4	10.4	2.5	9.3	6.6	5.9	17.6	11.0	5.1		7.2
Stockholm (Sweden)	2005 *	60.4	6.4	24.1	2.4	20.6	7.4	4.2	1.9	19.9	7.4	2.1	12.2
Sydney (Australia)	2004	50.7	6.8	22.1	0.5	5.2	12.6	8.4	4.6	16.6			12.3
Tallinn (Estonia)	2004	75.7	5.4	24.8		9.4	18.9	15.4	12.3	28.9	8.1	1.1	9.3
Vienna (Austria)	2005 *	56.6	1.3	15.1	0.4	10.4	9.8	8.7	2.4	27.9	9.3	0.5	10.3
Warsaw (Poland)	2005	53.5	6.2	16.9	0.0	14.6	6.6	6.6	11.4	17.5	5.5		7.5
Zurich (Switzerland)	2005	55.4	2.1	7.1	1.5	17.4	10.6	9.1	5.6	25.1	11.5	3.2	10.0
		56.9	5.8	15.6	2.0	11.8	12.3	10.4	8.4	20.8	7.2	1.7	12.1

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The peruvian questionnaire deviated from the standard for Assaults and threats, these data are ommited.

*** The Australian 2004 questionnaire deviated from the standard for sexual offences; these data are omitted.

(1) In some countries, the questions on sexual offences were not asked to men.

(4) Sexual assaults against near 0.1% on average in the countries where this question was asked.

Table 5 **One year incidence victimisation rates in countries (number of incidents per 100 population). 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Overall victimisation for 9 crimes conistent over 5 sweeps	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (1c)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual offences against women	Sexual offences against men (1a)	Assaults & threats
Australia	1989	47.2	3.0	9.1	11.9	0.3	2.3	5.9	0.0	1.1	6.3	18.9		9.7
	1992	47.0	3.5	8.5	13.8	0.3	2.3	5.2	4.7	1.4	9.0	7.6		8.1
	2000	47.0	2.0	8.4	11.6	0.1	2.2	4.8	4.0	1.5	8.0	9.1	1.8	11.2
	2004***	26.2	1.2	5.8	0.0	0.2	1.5	3.1	3.0	1.3	4.3	0.0		5.9
Austria	1996	22.5	0.1	1.9	9.5	0.0	4.3	1.0	0.5	0.2	5.7	9.5		3.7
	2005*	16.5	0.1	2.5	0.0	0.0	2.4	1.2	1.6	0.5	3.7	2.9	0.2	2.9
Belgium	1989	21.2	1.1	3.4	8.8	0.4	3.6	2.8	0.0	1.3	4.3	2.3		3.0
	1992	24.2	1.1	4.9	7.8	1.5	3.6	2.6	2.2	1.1	4.0	1.4		2.5
	2000	28.6	0.9	4.1	8.4	0.3	5.2	2.4	3.7	1.4	4.8	2.1		4.6
	2005*	31.0	0.6	5.5	0.0	0.1	6.1	2.1	2.9	1.4	4.1	2.1	0.2	7.1
Bulgaria	2004	20.6	1.2	4.2	2.2	0.0	1.1	3.0	2.8	1.4	4.8	0.2		1.9
Canada	1989	36.5	0.9	9.1	11.5	0.4	4.0	3.6	0.0	1.5	6.9	6.9		6.5
	1992	44.0	1.4	9.9	10.9	0.2	5.3	4.2	3.6	1.6	6.9	7.1		7.3
	1996	39.9	1.6	7.9	7.8	0.1	4.0	4.0	3.6	1.8	7.3	4.8		7.1
	2000	36.7	1.4	6.9	6.3	0.1	4.2	2.9	2.7	1.2	6.3	5.1	1.3	8.5
	2004	28.4	0.8	6.3	0.0	0.2	3.2	2.6	2.0	0.8	5.3	4.7	0.2	4.8
Denmark	2000	32.0	1.2	4.1	4.6	1.0	8.7	3.3	1.6	0.8	4.4	4.6		4.7
	2005*	32.0	1.4	3.4	0.0	0.5	8.0	3.5	1.7	1.2	3.8	5.8	2.1	5.5
England & Wales	1989	19.9	2.0	6.5	8.7	0.1	1.3	2.2	0.0	0.7	4.0	1.2		2.4
	1992	39.8	3.9	11.4	15.7	0.4	3.9	3.2	3.6	1.4	5.0	2.9		5.5
	1996	44.8	2.7	11.3	16.1	0.2	4.2	3.4	4.4	1.7	5.5	3.1		9.7
	2000	45.1	2.4	8.5	13.2	0.5	3.2	3.4	3.8	2.0	5.7	6.1		12.4
	2005*	42.2	2.3	8.2	0.0	0.8	3.2	4.6	3.3	2.6	7.5	3.4	1.5	8.1
Estonia	1993	56.4	0.7	11.1	5.1	0.8	7.6	7.4	4.3	4.6	9.3	2.2		9.5
	1995	48.8	2.0	10.5	8.0	0.2	5.6	5.6	5.0	4.2	6.7	3.2		7.6

Table 5 (Continued)

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Overall victimisation for 9 crimes conistent over 5 sweeps	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (1c)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual offences against women	Sexual offences against men (1a)	Assaults & threats
Estonia (cont.)	2000	48.4	0.9	12.3	7.8	0.0	4.3	5.0	3.8	3.8	6.7	4.3		9.4
	2004	32.9	0.5	7.6	5.0	0.0	3.6	3.4	2.0	1.3	7.5	3.3		5.4
Finland	1989	17.6	0.4	3.3	4.6	0.0	3.8	0.6	0.0	0.7	5.0	0.5		3.4
	1992	27.9	0.9	3.5	6.8	0.3	5.8	0.6	0.6	1.4	3.9	8.7		6.4
	1996	26.3	0.5	3.5	4.9	0.2	6.4	0.8	0.8	0.8	3.6	4.7		7.4
	2000	26.3	0.4	3.2	0.0	0.1	5.8	0.5	1.3	0.7	3.9	8.4		6.1
	2005*	19.7	0.5	2.7	0.0	0.1	6.5	1.2	0.5	0.4	2.6	2.3	0.6	4.0
France	1989	23.9	2.4	7.5	7.7	0.8	1.4	3.3	0.0	0.6	4.2	1.8		2.9
	1996	33.7	1.8	9.3	11.4	1.0	3.7	2.9	2.2	1.3	4.8	1.7		5.7
	2000	24.8	2.0	6.2	11.0	0.3	1.9	1.0	1.9	1.8	3.1	1.3		6.0
	2005*	18.0	0.7	4.2	0.0	0.5	0.9	1.8	1.2	0.9	3.9	0.7		3.4
Germany	1989	25.2	0.5	5.5	12.4	0.2	3.8	1.4	0.0	1.1	5.0	5.5		4.7
	2005*	20.5	0.2	2.4	0.0	0.2	4.3	1.1	1.3	0.5	3.9	4.7	0.8	4.2
Greece	2005*	26.4	0.3	2.2	0.0	0.8	2.4	2.0	1.8	1.9	6.1	7.2	0.8	5.2
Hungary	2005*	15.4	0.2	2.4	0.0	0.0	2.0	2.5	1.0	1.1	3.7	0.6	0.4	2.1
Iceland	2005	38.4	1.0	4.4	0.0	0.1	5.3	1.9	2.2	1.0	8.3	6.2	2.0	11.2
Ireland	2005*	38.6	1.3	6.5	0.0	0.3	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.0	7.7	7.1	1.0	8.0
Italy	1992	28.8	2.9	8.3	10.8	1.7	2.6	2.6	1.8	1.6	4.2	3.8		1.1
	2005*	18.2	1.1	2.7	0.0	1.3	2.4	2.8	3.3	0.3	2.5	1.5	0.3	1.1
Japan	2000	16.4	0.1	1.7	5.8	1.0	7.9	1.7	1.2	0.1	0.5	3.1		0.6
	2004	14.1	0.1	1.2	5.3	0.7	6.7	1.2	1.3	0.2	0.3	3.1		0.8
Luxembourg	2005*	20.2	0.6	3.3	0.0	0.0	1.6	2.2	2.7	0.8	5.0	0.6		3.7
Mexico	2004	39.4	0.9	7.3	0.0	0.0	5.4	4.6	4.2	4.9	6.3	4.0	0.9	3.6
Netherlands	1989	35.9	0.3	6.9	10.9	0.4	10.4	2.6	0.0	1.2	5.2	5.0		6.3
	1992	45.4	0.6	9.4	13.5	1.1	14.1	2.4	3.6	1.1	4.9	4.1		6.1
	1996	49.1	0.4	7.0	13.5	1.1	13.0	3.3	4.1	0.8	9.0	6.0		7.3

Table 5 (Continued)

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Overall victimisation for 9 crimes conistent over 5 sweeps	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (1c)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual offences against women	Sexual offences against men (1a)	Assaults & threats
Netherlands (cont.)	2000	37.9	0.4	5.7	13.2	0.7	10.2	2.3	3.0	1.5	6.0	5.7		5.3
	2005*	33.5	1.0	4.8	0.0	0.4	8.7	1.4	1.5	0.8	4.2	5.6	3.0	8.0
New Zealand	1992	48.6	3.2	9.3	10.2	0.3	5.1	5.5	4.5	1.2	7.4	5.0		9.7
	2004	36.1	1.9	8.5	0.0	0.2	1.6	3.9	3.9	1.5	4.8	5.2	1.5	7.1
Northern Ireland	1989	18.0	2.0	4.7	6.2	0.1	1.8	1.3	0.0	0.5	2.9	3.8		2.7
	1996	18.9	1.6	3.5	8.6	0.0	1.3	1.8	1.4	0.7	3.0	3.8		3.8
	2000	17.5	1.5	3.3	6.0	0.0	2.4	1.7	0.9	0.1	2.6	1.4		4.3
	2005*	35.2	1.7	5.9	0.0	0.4	2.2	1.6	2.5	1.1	6.4	7.0	1.9	9.8
Norway	1989	21.3	1.1	4.1	6.3	0.6	2.8	0.9	0.0	0.8	3.2	3.7		5.9
	2004	27.0	0.9	3.1	0.0	0.3	5.1	1.4	1.2	0.8	5.9	6.4	0.8	5.0
Poland	1992	39.6	0.7	5.8	6.3	1.0	4.7	2.8	3.0	2.2	9.3	6.5		6.8
	1996	36.5	0.9	7.8	7.7	0.3	3.5	2.6	2.8	2.6	7.4	2.3		7.4
	2000	31.9	1.1	7.5	9.7	0.2	4.1	2.5	1.8	2.5	6.4	0.5		5.4
	2004	23.4	0.7	4.4	0.0	0.1	2.6	2.0	1.4	1.5	3.9	2.2		5.7
Portugal	2000	18.4	1.0	6.9	9.0	0.3	0.8	1.8	1.7	1.3	2.1	1.2		2.0
	2005*	16.0	1.6	6.8	0.0	0.0	0.5	1.9	0.8	1.1	1.7	1.1	0.6	1.1
Scotland	1989	20.4	0.8	7.8	8.8	0.4	1.3	2.3	0.0	0.6	2.8	2.3		3.1
	1996	32.2	2.0	8.9	13.6	0.1	2.1	1.6	2.9	1.0	5.5	1.5		7.3
	2000	30.3	0.9	5.8	13.0	0.2	2.3	1.5	2.2	0.9	5.0	2.1		10.3
	2005*	21.2	0.4	2.7	0.0	0.2	2.1	2.2	2.6	1.0	3.2	2.0	0.2	5.7
Spain	1989	39.2	1.9	14.0	9.6	0.9	1.2	2.1	0.0	4.4	6.5	3.5		6.2
	2005*	15.9	1.5	3.7	0.0	0.4	0.7	1.1	0.5	1.7	2.2	2.2	2.0	2.8
Sweden	1992	30.0	1.8	4.4	5.6	0.8	8.5	1.5	0.8	0.7	5.4	2.0		5.0
	1996	39.2	1.5	6.0	6.3	0.6	11.4	1.5	1.2	0.5	5.8	6.0		7.6
	2000	39.8	1.4	7.1	6.7	0.4	9.4	2.3	0.9	1.5	7.2	6.0		6.5
	2005*	26.4	0.5	5.7	0.0	0.7	5.3	0.8	0.1	1.2	3.1	7.1	1.7	5.2

Table 5 (Continued)

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Overall victimisation for 9 crimes conistent over 5 sweeps	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (1c)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual offences against women	Sexual offences against men (1a)	Assaults & threats
Switzerland	1989	18.0	0.0	2.2	5.0	1.6	3.9	1.1	0.0	0.5	5.7	3.0		1.6
	1996	34.6	0.1	3.3	9.3	1.9	9.9	1.6	1.3	0.9	6.8	9.6		4.1
	2000	10.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.2	2.0	1.1	0.0	3.5		3.9
	2005	23.6	0.2	3.7	0.0	0.7	6.3	2.1	1.7	1.3	0.0	6.1	1.2	4.3
United Kingdom	1989**	19.9	1.9	6.6	8.7	0.1	1.3	2.2	0.0	0.7	3.9	1.4	0.0	2.5
	1996**	43.0	2.7	10.9	15.7	0.2	3.9	3.2	4.2	1.6	5.4	3.0	0.0	9.4
	2000**	43.0	2.3	8.1	13.0	0.5	3.1	3.2	3.6	1.8	5.6	5.7	0.0	12.0
	2005*	39.6	2.2	7.9	0.0	0.7	3.2	4.2	3.1	2.4	6.7	3.2	1.4	7.5
USA	1989	49.3	2.9	12.4	12.2	0.1	3.8	5.6	0.0	2.8	6.1	10.4		10.1
	1992	na												
	1996	42.5	2.0	9.5	8.8	0.2	3.8	3.9	4.4	1.6	4.6	4.9		10.0
	2000	33.6	0.6	8.1	9.2	0.3	2.7	3.3	3.3	0.6	6.7	2.8		6.5
	2004	39.1	1.2	7.5	0.0	0.1	3.3	4.1	3.4	1.1	5.8	8.0	0.6	8.3
Averages (2)(3)	1st sweep	28.0	1.4	6.9	8.9	0.5	3.2	2.5		1.3	4.9	4.9		4.9
	2nd sweep	36.2	1.9	7.9	9.7	0.8	5.8	3.5	3.0	1.7	6.3	4.7		6.2
	3rd sweep	32.4	1.4	7.0	9.3	0.4	5.0	2.6	2.5	1.4	5.5	4.6		6.8
	4th sweep	28.5	1.1	5.9	8.0	0.3	4.4	2.4	2.3	1.3	4.7	4.0	1.6	6.3
	5th sweep	24,4	0,9	4,7	0,4	0,3	3,6	2,3	2,1	1,3	4,4	3,8	1,1	5,1

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Data for United Kingdom 1989,1996 and 2000 are computed using the separate surveys for England & Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland (weighted by population size).

*** The Australian 2004 questionnaire deviated from the standard for sexual offences; these data are omitted and no overall victimisation rate is computed.

(1a) Sexual offences against men were asked in Canada and Australia in 2000, but an average score for the 2000 sweep of survey is not computed. (1c) Car vandalism is dropped in the 5th sweep.

(2) Averages apply to all surveys participating in a sweep of surveys, since not every country participated every time, these averages need to be interpreted with caution (UK excluded to avoid double count).

(3) 1st sweep: 1989 -- 2nd sweep 1992 -- 3rd sweep 1995/97 -- 4th sweep 1999-2000 -- 5th sweep 2004/05.

Table 6 One year incidence victimisation rates in main cities (percentages) 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		10 crimes (1)	Car theft	Theft from car	Motorcycle theft	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual incidents against women	Sexual incidents (men)	Assaults & threats
Amsterdam (Netherlands)	2005*	47.7	0.8	5.2	0.4	16.1	2.6	2.0	1.1	5.2	4.1	2.6	10.1
Athens (Greece)	2005 *	21.8	1.0	4.4	0.5	0.9	2.7	2.2	0.8	5.2	1.3	0.0	2.7
Belfast (Northern Ireland)	2005	49.9	2.6	9.8	0.2	3.3	3.0	4.5	3.0	7.4	2.3	0.2	13.9
Berlin (Germany)	2005 *	30.7	0.4	5.4	0.6	4.3	1.3	2.0	1.3	5.4	2.7	1.8	7.2
Brussels (Belgium)	2005 *	36.1	1.2	9.7	0.0	1.9	3.5	3.5	3.3	8.6	0.3	0.4	4.2
Budapest (Hungary)	2005 *	21.2	0.4	3.3	0.0	1.6	1.6	1.1	2.0	7.3	0.5	0.0	3.3
Buenos Aires (Argentina)	2004	57.2	2.1	11.6	0.6	5.0	2.7	4.6	16.6	10.7	2.2	0.4	6.5
Copenhagen (Denmark)	2005 *	37.9	1.0	1.8	0.6	11.6	2.9	1.4	2.3	5.0	6.0	6.0	5.2
Dublin (Ireland)	2005 *	43.3	4.2	7.8	0.5	4.3	3.5	5.8	2.2	7.3	1.5	1.6	6.2
Edinburgh (Scotland)	2005	28.2	0.7	4.3	0.1	3.2	2.2	2.5	2.4	5.1	1.4	0.6	6.3
Johannesburg (RSA)	2004	48.4	4.0	4.5	0.0	1.7	8.4	5.8	9.4	11.2	1.7	0.0	19.4
Helsinki (Finland)	2005 *	33.4	2.0	4.2	0.1	5.0	5.4	0.6	1.7	3.3	3.6	0.4	7.5
Hong Kong (SAR China)	2005	11.3	0.0	0.6	0.1	2.1	0.6	22.9	0.4	4.1	1.4	0.4	2.0
Istanbul (Turkey)	2005	25.1	1.0	4.9	0.0	1.1	6.5	6.2	1.1	3.9	3.5		0.8
Lima (Peru)	2005						9.7	18.7	10.0	16.6	6.1	2.5	
Lisbon (Portugal)	2005 *	15.5	2.5	3.3	0.1	0.7	0.9	0.8	2.5	2.8	0.4	0.4	1.6
London (England)	2005 *	61.9	1.8	12.2	0.5	5.5	5.1	5.9	3.1	12.0	2.5	1.0	13.4
Madrid (Spain)	2005 *	23.3	2.5	6.0	0.1	0.4	1.3	1.6	1.8	4.9	0.7	0.5	4.0
Maputo (Mozambique)	2002	90.7	2.4	10.2	0.3	1.0	23.4	15.4	11.2	14.6	5.2		9.7
New York (USA)	2004	47.2	1.9	8.7	0.0	3.7	2.1	3.6	3.6	10.6	4.3	1.8	8.7
Oslo (Norway)	2004	37.4	1.0	4.1	0.2	5.0	2.1	3.0	1.5	9.5	2.8	0.0	8.2
Paris (France)	2005 *	25.7	0.2	4.9	1.0	3.0	2.0	2.0	1.6	6.5	0.6	0.0	4.0
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	2002	94.9	0.2	7.8	8.0	6.0	27.9	12.6	2.0	17.5	2.1		11.7
Reykjavik (Iceland)	2004	45.2	1.0	5.6	0.1	7.1	2.4	3.5	1.1	8.7	2.4	1.7	13.2
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	2002	25.6	2.3	1.8	0.5	3.0	1.6	1.9	7.8	3.3	3.2		3.2
Rome (Italy)	2005 *	24.4	3.9	7.7	1.0	0.3	2.1	2.7	0.7	3.6	0.8	0.0	1.6

Table 6 (Continued)

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		10 crimes (1)	Car theft	Theft from car	Motorcycle theft	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual incidents against women	Sexual incidents (men)	Assaults & threats
Sao Paulo (Brazil)	2002	38.9	5.4	5.4	1.1	2.0	2.7	2.9	11.3	4.3	3.7		4.0
Stockholm (Sweden)	2005 *	37.3	2.1	9.7	0.2	8.5	2.6	1.4	0.9	5.0	2.7	3.6	4.2
Sydney (Australia)	2004***		0.8	5.9	0.2	1.3	2.6	2.3	1.4	4.0			3.6
Tallinn (Estonia)	2004	48.5	0.6	9.9		3.3	6.7	4.1	3.0	12.2	2.7	0.0	6.0
Vienna (Austria)	2005 *	26.9	0.4	5.3	0.1	2.4	3.4	2.3	1.0	7.3	0.9	0.1	4.0
Warsaw (Poland)	2005	31.8	1.6	5.8	0.0	5.2	2.8	2.4	2.8	5.7	3.2	0.0	3.8
Zurich (Switzerland)	2005	28.8	0.4	2.9	0.8	6.4	4.1	2.9	1.7		3.7	0.9	5.8
		38.6	1.6	6.1	0.6	4.0	4.6	4.7	3.5	7.5	2.5	1.0	

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The peruvian questionnaire deviated from the standard for Assaults and threats, these data are ommited.

*** The Australian 2004 questionnaire deviated from the standard for sexual offences; these data are omitted.

(1) In some countries, the questions on sexual offences were not asked to men.

(4) Sexual assaults against near 0.1% on average in the countries where this question was asked.

Table 7 **One year prevalence victimisation rates for sub-crimes and non-conventional crimes in countries (percentages). 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Pickpocketing	Sexual assault against women	Sexual assault against men (1)(4)	(non sexual) assault	Consumer fraud	Street level corruption (bribery)
Australia	1989	0.8	1.4		2.3		
	1992	1.0	1.2		2.3	8.4	
	2000	1.2	1.0	0.1	2.4	8.8	0.3
	2004***	2.8			1.3		
Austria	1996	2.8	1.2		0.8	10.5	0.7
	2005*	1.8	0.4	0.0	0.5	8.1	0.6
Belgium	1989	1.7	0.5		0.7		
	1992	1.3	0.9		0.4	8.6	
	2000	2.1	0.3		1.2	6.4	0.3
	2005*	2.2	0.4	0.0	1.5	8.0	0.5
Bulgaria	2004	2.1	0.1		0.7	22.7	8.4
Canada	1989	0.8	1.2		1.7		
	1992	0.6	1.6		1.8	8.1	
	1996	0.8	0.9		1.4	6.9	0.4
	2000	0.7	0.8	0.2	2.3	7.5	0.4
	2004	0.7	0.8	0.0	1.4	7.4	0.6
Denmark	2000	1.8	0.4		1.4	11.5	0.3
	2005*	1.5	0.5	0.3	1.2	15.7	1.0
England & Wales	1989	1.3	0.3		0.9		
	1992	1.3	0.7		1.6	6.7	
	1996	1.7	0.4		2.3	5.4	0.3
	2000	1.7	0.9		2.8	6.0	0.1
	2005*	2.7	0.9	0.2	2.3	7.7	0.0
Estonia	1993	3.2	1.4		2.3	32.5	
	1995	2.5	1.0		2.2	30.1	3.8
	2000	3.3	1.9		2.5	38.1	5.2
	2004	3.3	0.4	0.0	1.0	25.7	3.1
Finland	1989	1.9	0.3		1.7		
	1992	1.7	1.5		2.4		
	1996	1.5	1.0		2.1	14.5	0.1
	2000	1.5	1.1		2.1	10.2	0.2
	2005*	0.7	0.4	0.0	0.8	5.2	0.0
France	1989	1.8	0.4		0.9		
	1996	1.9	0.4		1.4	9.8	0.7
	2000	1.3	0.7		1.4	4.4	1.3
	2005*	1.6	0.3	0.0	0.9	10.2	1.1

Table 7 (Continued)

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Pickpocketing	Sexual assault against women	Sexual assault against men (1)(4)	(non sexual) assault	Consumer fraud	Street level corruption (bribery)
Germany	1989	1.6	1.1		1.3		
	2005*	1.4	0.4	0.2	0.9	11.7	0.6
Greece	2005*	4.3	0.4	0.1	0.7	24.7	13.5
Hungary	2005*	1.6	0.0	0.2	0.2	19.7	4.9
Iceland	2005	2.0	1.4	0.3	2.6	12.9	0.3
Ireland	2005*	3.0	0.8	0.2	2.3	8.0	0.3
Italy	1992	2.3	0.6		0.2	10.6	
	2005*	1.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	5.9	0.4
Japan	2000	0.1	0.1		0.1	2.3	0.0
(4)	2004		0.8		0.1	1.9	0.2
Luxembourg	2005*	1.7	0.4	0.0	0.7	9.8	0.4
Mexico	2004	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.7	7.2	13.3
Netherlands	1989	1.5	0.6		1.4		
	1992	1.8	0.7		1.3	4.9	
	1996	2.7	0.8		1.1	5.9	0.5
	2000	1.9	0.8		1.0	4.4	0.4
	2005*	1.7	0.6	0.3	1.4	7.0	0.2
New Zealand	1992	0.7	1.3		2.4	7.4	
	2004	0.6	0.8	0.1	2.0	7.7	0.5
Northern Ireland	1989	0.8	0.3		0.8		
	1996	0.5	0.5		0.9	4.4	0.0
	2000	0.4	0.1		2.1	3.8	0.2
	2005*	1.8	1.2	0.2	3.5	7.8	0.0
Norway	1989	0.8	0.3		1.1		
	2004	1.6	1.0	0.0	1.1	9.7	0.4
Poland	1992	6.7	1.5		1.7	11.6	5.5
	1996	4.0	0.6		1.5	14.2	4.8
	2000	4.0	0.2		1.1	12.8	5.1
	2004	2.5	0.5		1.0	16.1	4.4
Portugal	2000	1.2	0.2		0.4	7.0	1.4
	2005*	0.9	0.2	0.1	0.2	8.2	1.0
Scotland	1989	1.0	0.6		0.9		
	1996	1.2	0.2		1.9	6.4	0.3
	2000	1.4	0.3		3.0	4.9	0.0
	2005*	0.8	0.6	0.1	1.7	6.4	0.4
Spain	1989	2.8	0.6		1.0		
	2005*	1.5	0.1	0.0	0.6	10.8	0.3

Table 7 (Continued)

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Pickpocketing	Sexual assault against women	Sexual assault against men (1)(4)	(non sexual) assault	Consumer fraud	Street level corruption (bribery)
Sweden (cont.)	1992	1.0	0.5		1.0	3.7	
	1996	0.9	1.5		1.6	7.7	0.2
	2000	1.2	1.1		1.2	9.4	0.1
	2005*	0.9	1.3	0.0	0.8	13.7	0.1
Switzerland	1989	1.8	0.6		0.6		
	1996	2.0	1.2		1.1	9.9	0.2
	2000		0.6		1.0		
	2005		0.9	0.1		7.3	0.5
United Kingdom	1989**	1.3	0.3		0.9		
	1996**	1.6	0.4		2.3	5.5	0.3
	2000**	1.7	0.8		2.8	5.8	0.1
	2005*	2.4	0.9	0.1	2.1	8.3	0.0
USA	1989	1.1	1.4		1.7		
	1992	1.4	0.6		2.1		
	1996	0.9	1.2		2.1	9.6	0.3
	2000	0.8	0.4		1.2	11.4	0.2
	2004	1.2	1.4	0.0	1.8	12.5	0.5
Average (2)(3)	1st sweep	1.4	0.7		1.2		
	2nd sweep	1.9	1.0		1.6	10.2	5.5
	3rd sweep	1.7	0.8		1.6	10.8	1.0
	4th sweep	1.5	0.7		1.6	9.3	1.0
	5th sweep	1.7	0.6	0.1	1.2	11.0	2.0

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Data for United Kingdom 1989,1996 and 2000 are computed using the separate surveys for England & Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland (weighted by population size).

*** The Australian 2004 questionnaire deviated from the standard for sexual offences; these data are omitted.

(1) Sexual offences against men were asked in Canada and Australia in 2000, but an average score for the 2000 sweep of survey is not computed.

(2) Averages apply to all surveys participating in a sweep of surveys, since not every country participated every time, these averages need to be interpreted with caution (UK excluded to avoid double count).

(3) 1st sweep: 1989 -- 2nd sweep 1992 -- 3rd sweep 1995/97 -- 4th sweep 1999-2000 -- 5th sweep 2004/05.

(4) For privacy reasons, the respondents in Japan filled out a short questionnaire themselves on the details of sexual offences and handed it over to the interviewer in a sealed envelope. This explaines the huge increase in sexual assaults towards the 2000 survey.

Table 8 One year prevalence victimisation rates for sub-crimes and non-conventional crimes in capital cities (percentages). 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Pickpocketing	Sexual assault against women	Sexual assault against men (1)(4)	(non sexual) assault	Consumer fraud	Street level corruption (bribery)
Amsterdam (Netherlands)	2005*	2.4	0.5	0.3	1.6	7.6	0.2
Athens (Greece)	2005 *	2.6	0.3	0.0	0.6	24.1	13.8
Belfast (Northern Ireland)	2005	1.5	0.8	0.1	5.3	8.9	0.0
Berlin (Germany)	2005 *	3.0	0.4	0.6	1.2	11.0	0.5
Brussels (Belgium)	2005 *	3.8	0.1	0.4	1.2	10.0	1.2
Budapest (Hungary)	2005 *	3.7	0.1	0.0	0.5	25.8	6.9
Buenos Aires (Argentina)	2004	5.5	0.8	0.1	0.8	20.4	5.8
Copenhagen (Denmark)	2005 *	2.0	1.4	0.5	1.6	15.7	0.4
Dublin (Ireland)	2005 *	2.6	0.1	0.1	1.4	8.2	0.1
Edinburgh (Scotland)	2005	1.6	0.6	0.1	2.0	5.8	0.5
Johannesburg (RSA)	2004	4.5	1.1	0.0	14.5	10.3	15.5
Helsinki (Finland)	2005 *	1.3	1.4	0.2	1.7	5.0	0.1
Hong Kong (SAR China)	2005	2.9	0.8	0.1	0.3	21.7	0.0
Istanbul (Turkey)	2005	2.7	1.1		0.2	11.5	7.1
Lima (Peru)	2005	11.4	1.4	0.2	**	15.8	13.7
Lisbon (Portugal)	2005 *	1.4	0.1	0.1	0.3	7.7	1.1
London (England)	2005 *	5.2	0.9	0.1	2.5	12.9	0.7
Madrid (Spain)	2005 *	3.2	0.1	0.3	1.1	11.6	0.4
Maputo (Mozambique)	2002	8.2	1.8		2.9	35.8	30.5
New York (USA)	2004	3.3	1.6	0.1	1.7	12.9	0.4
Oslo (Norway)	2004	3.3	0.9	0.0	1.5	9.1	0.2
Paris (France)	2005 *	3.1	0.2	0.0	1.1	14.0	0.8
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	2002	11.3	1.2		1.6	40.0	29.0
Reykjavik (Iceland)	2004	2.4	1.4	0.2	3.0	13.6	0.4
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	2002	1.4	1.3		0.7		
Rome (Italy)	2005 *	2.2	0.6	0.0	0.2	7.8	0.9
Sao Paulo (Brazil)	2002	2.3	1.1		1.0		
Stockholm (Sweden)	2005 *	1.2	0.3	0.1	1.1	13.7	0.5
Sydney (Australia)***	2004	2.4	***	***	1.2		
Tallinn (Estonia)	2004	6.5	0.3	0.0	1.3	24.5	3.7
Vienna (Austria)	2005 *	3.6	0.1	0.0	0.7	7.9	0.7
Warsaw (Poland)	2005	4.2	0.9		0.8	24.1	6.2
Zurich (Switzerland)	2005		0.9	0.3		7.7	1.2
Average		3.7	0.8	0.1	1.8	14.8	4.7

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** The peruvian questionnaire deviated from the standard for Assaults and threats, these data are ommited.

*** The Australian 2004 questionnaire deviated from the standard for sexual offences; these data are omitted.

(1) In some countries, the questions on sexual offences were not asked to men.

(4) Sexual assaults against near 0.1% on average in the countries where this question was asked.

Table 9 Ownership of vehicles (percentages) and and one year prevalence rates of victimisation for owners (percentages) in countries. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Car ownership	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Motorcycle / moped ownership	Theft of a motorcycle or moped	Bicycle ownership	Theft of a bicycle
Australia	1989	88.7	2.6	7.8	9.5	2.7	48.0	4.0
	1992	93.3	3.4	7.0	13.4	2.1	64.3	3.3
	2000	93.4	2.1	7.3	12.2	0.4	64.0	3.1
	2004	94.0	1.2	4.8	11.9	1.2	59.7	2.1
Austria	1996	84.4	0.2	1.9	21.1	0.0	86.5	3.8
	2005*	85.1	0.1	2.8	22.1	0.1	84.8	2.4
Belgium	1989	81.6	1.0	3.3	11.8	3.0	58.8	4.6
	1992	88.1	1.2	4.4	16.9	6.8	68.9	4.0
	2000	87.1	0.8	4.1	17.2	1.8	75.9	4.6
	2005*	87.9	0.6	4.8	13.7	0.9	72.9	5.8
Bulgaria	2004	50.2	2.5	6.5	5.1	0.0	33.9	3.3
Canada	1989	88.9	0.9	8.1	9.9	3.5	63.5	5.4
	1992	88.9	1.4	8.2	12.5	1.7	70.3	5.3
	1996	89.6	1.7	6.9	9.5	0.8	71.1	4.7
	2000	87.7	1.6	6.1	9.6	1.0	71.4	4.9
	2004	90.3	0.9	5.3	9.1	2.4	73.0	3.7
Denmark	2000	77.9	1.4	4.4	15.7	4.3	89.9	7.5
	2005*	78.9	1.6	3.3	19.4	1.6	90.2	6.6
England & Wales	1989	77.3	2.4	7.3	6.5	0.9	35.9	2.8
	1992	85.5	4.3	10.0	11.6	3.2	53.6	5.7
	1996	82.9	3.0	9.7	10.1	2.3	58.3	6.0
	2000	80.3	2.6	8.0	8.7	4.2	54.5	4.4
	2005*	81.2	2.3	7.4	11.8	6.6	61.1	4.3
Estonia	1993	45.0	1.5	16.2	14.3	5.1	65.9	9.5
	1995	58.0	3.1	13.3	15.0	1.3	70.0	7.4
	2000	54.4	1.6	16.7			66.3	6.0
	2004	61.2	0.8	9.8			71.5	5.0
Finland	1989	77.1	0.5	3.5	11.0	0.0	88.2	3.5
	1992	82.2	0.8	3.6	17.6	1.4	91.9	5.5
	1996	80.4	0.6	3.7	14.1	1.2	90.7	5.6
	2000	81.8	0.5	3.5	14.5	0.8	92.1	5.3
	2005*	87.8	0.5	2.6	25.0	0.4	93.7	5.5
France	1989	84.5	2.8	7.1	16.5	3.7	55.9	2.4
	1996	86.5	1.8	8.3	19.5	4.2	64.6	4.4
	2000	87.5	1.9	6.2	20.9	1.5	68.2	2.6
	2005*	90.8	0.7	3.5	18.3	1.6	57.3	1.6

Table 9 (Continued)

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Car ownership	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Motorcycle / moped ownership	Theft of a motorcycle or moped	Bicycle ownership	Theft of a bicycle
Germany	1989	80.4	0.5	5.8	10.7	1.8	76.0	4.4
	2005*	88.3	0.2	2.3	20.8	0.8	89.6	3.7
Greece	2005*	77.0	0.4	2.3	32.5	1.8	43.5	4.8
Hungary	2005*	70.1	0.3	3.0	21.5	0.1	84.2	2.0
Iceland	2005	90.6	1.1	4.2	9.9	0.5	80.8	5.7
Ireland	2005*	89.5	1.3	5.8	10.7	2.5	61.1	4.0
Italy	1992	88.1	3.0	7.9	36.8	4.2	68.6	3.4
	2005*	90.1	1.1	2.7	33.6	2.9	66.4	3.1
Japan	2000	86.4	0.1	1.8	32.8	3.1	80.4	8.2
	2004	86.8	0.1	1.3	29.1	2.4	81.8	6.3
Luxembourg	2005*	92.0	0.6	3.1	14.5	0.0	69.2	2.4
Mexico	2004	42.6	2.1	9.6	5.6	0.0	61.3	6.1
Netherlands	1989	77.3	0.4	6.8	12.7	3.3	90.8	8.3
	1992	80.7	0.7	8.4	19.4	5.0	92.2	10.8
	1996	82.7	0.4	6.6	21.4	3.2	93.0	10.2
	2000	82.1	0.5	4.8	21.9	2.7	92.5	7.6
	2005*	85.8	1.1	4.5	22.2	1.9	96.2	6.9
New Zealand	1992	95.2	2.8	7.3	22.8	1.1	68.0	6.4
	2004	95.4	1.9	7.0	19.1	0.6	58.0	2.5
Northern Ireland	1989	72.5	2.2	5.5	4.0	3.3	44.5	3.5
	1996	80.9	1.9	3.8	5.9	0.0	56.6	2.1
	2000	83.1	1.5	3.3	5.9	0.0	58.8	2.4
	2005*	84.3	1.7	5.8	10.7	2.6	60.2	3.2
Norway	1989	80.1	1.3	3.5	9.7	3.5	72.6	3.8
	2004	89.8	0.8	2.9	22.1	1.2	88.5	4.7
Poland	1992	51.2	1.4	10.3	27.6	3.5	79.9	5.3
	1996	56.2	1.5	10.1	16.8	1.6	75.5	4.3
	2000	61.0	1.7	9.0	10.5	0.9	77.7	4.7
	2004	63.5	1.1	6.1	10.7	0.7	81.7	3.1
Portugal	2000	76.5	1.2	6.4	18.4	1.4	44.8	1.8
	2005*	77.6	1.9	6.4	15.9	0.1	39.5	1.2
Scotland	1989	69.2	1.2	7.7	4.2	7.2	31.0	3.3
	1996	78.2	2.1	8.5	6.7	1.3	54.8	3.5
	2000	76.0	1.0	5.6	5.7	2.1	51.9	3.9
	2005*	77.7	0.4	3.0	8.3	3.0	56.3	3.3
Spain	1989	66.2	2.1	14.4	20.0	3.9	37.0	2.9
	2005*	82.2	1.2	3.3	20.5	1.3	43.0	1.6

Table 9 (Continued)

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Car ownership	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Motorcycle / moped ownership	Theft of a motorcycle or moped	Bicycle ownership	Theft of a bicycle
Sweden (cont.)	1992	83.9	2.0	4.7	16.2	3.5	91.0	7.7
	1996	82.1	1.5	6.0	19.6	2.3	91.3	9.7
	2000	79.1	1.6	6.6	23.3	1.6	92.2	7.8
	2005*	89.0	0.6	4.7	30.8	1.9	93.6	5.3
Switzerland	1989	78.5	0.0	2.4	25.0	4.7	69.3	4.7
	1996	82.2	0.1	3.7	32.1	4.3	77.9	9.0
	2000	80.3	0.4	2.1	23.1	1.0	73.7	6.4
	2005	81.2	0.2	3.5	20.0	3.0	73.3	6.2
United Kingdom	1989	69.8	1.3	7.6	4.3	6.4	31.7	3.3
	1996	78.6	2.2	8.5	6.9	1.4	55.1	3.6
	2000	76.4	1.1	5.7	5.9	2.3	52.2	3.9
	2005*	80.9	2.2	7.2	11.0	6.2	60.3	4.5
USA	1989	95.4	2.2	9.7	14.8	0.9	66.1	4.6
	1996	91.1	2.1	8.2	15.6	1.0	64.3	5.1
	2000	90.3	0.5	7.1	12.1	2.7	61.2	3.5
	2004	89.6	1.2	5.8	12.1	2.4	58.5	4.9
Averages (2)(3)	1st sweep	79.8	1.4	6.6	11.9	3.0	59.8	4.2
	2nd sweep	80.2	2.0	8.0	19.0	3.4	74.1	6.1
	3rd sweep	79.4	1.6	7.0	15.5	1.7	71.8	5.5
	4th sweep	80.3	1.2	6.1	15.8	1.9	71.5	5.0
	5th sweep	81.7	1.0	4.6	17.5	1.5	69.5	4.0

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Data for United Kingdom 1989,1996 and 2000 are computed using the separate surveys for England & Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland (weighted by population size).

(2) Averages apply to all surveys participating in a sweep of surveys, since not every country participated every time, these averages need to be interpreted with caution (UK excluded to avoid double count).

(3) 1st sweep: 1989 -- 2nd sweep 1992 -- 3rd sweep 1995/97 -- 4th sweep 1999-2000 -- 5th sweep 2004/05.

Table 10 Ownership of vehicles (percentages) and one year prevalence rates of victimisation for owners (percentages) in capital cities. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Victimisation figures apply to the year before the surveys		Car ownership	Theft of a car	Theft from a car	Motorcycle / moped ownership	Theft of a motorcycle or moped	Bicycle ownership	Theft of a bicycle
Amsterdam (Netherlands)	2005*	69.0	1.0	6.1	14.7	2.4	90.0	13.3
Athens (Greece)	2005*	73.7	0.9	5.0	21.6	2.3	22.2	4.3
Belfast (Northern Ireland)	2005*	73.8	2.6	9.1	7.4	2.3	51.6	5.1
Berlin (Germany)	2005*	72.0	0.6	5.4	14.6	4.1	79.5	5.2
Brussels (Belgium)	2005*	78.2	1.1	8.0	6.8	0.0	42.7	4.1
Budapest (Hungary)	2005*	63.7	0.6	3.5	6.6	0.7	55.2	3.0
Buenos Aires (Argentina)	2004	52.9	3.9	13.7	8.9	5.6	53.0	7.9
Copenhagen (Denmark)	2005*	58.3	1.6	2.6	12.5	3.5	89.8	10.4
Dublin (Ireland)	2005*	85.4	3.5	7.3	10.0	4.8	60.5	6.7
Edinburgh (Scotland)	2005*	74.1	0.6	4.3	6.0	1.5	53.1	5.1
Johannesburg (RSA)	2004	35.9	7.1	9.2	2.5	0.0	21.2	6.3
Helsinki (Finland)	2005*	74.1	2.4	5.6	16.2	0.3	85.9	4.7
Hong Kong (SAR China)	2005	21.5	0.0	2.1	3.0	3.4	30.2	5.5
Istanbul (Turkey)	2005	37.5	2.4	9.4	2.9	0.0	30.4	3.8
Lima (Peru)	2005	22.3	1.5	20.2	3.8	4.5	52.3	5.5
Lisbon (Portugal)	2005*	75.1	2.6	3.8	11.0	1.1	33.5	2.0
Ljubljana (Slovenia)	2001	84.6	0.8	11.1	14.1	3.7	81.7	7.6
London (England)	2005*	64.2	2.0	13.2	6.7	7.9	43.3	10.9
Madrid (Spain)	2005*	78.1	2.3	5.0	8.9	1.3	33.0	0.8
Maputo (Mozambique)	2002	25.4	7.5	21.0	9.0	3.4	22.8	3.5
New York (USA)	2004	61.1	2.7	10.7	4.7	0.0	48.9	6.2
Oslo (Norway)	2004	80.3	1.2	4.4	12.7	1.3	87.8	5.2
Paris (France)	2005*	60.8	0.3	5.0	10.4	9.5	29.5	9.1
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	2001	22.3	1.0	19.5	87.9		60.1	8.8
Reykjavik (Iceland)	2005	89.7	1.1	5.2	6.8	2.0	78.0	7.9
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	2002	45.5	3.7	2.6	7.5	6.9	55.4	4.6
Rome (Italy)	2005*	90.9	3.7	6.0	29.6	3.2	46.5	0.7
Sao Paulo (Brazil)	2002	51.4	8.2	8.6	10.0	9.3	50.1	3.6
Stockholm (Sweden)	2005*	86.7	2.1	8.3	16.1	1.4	91.2	7.7
Sydney (Australia)	2004	91.7	0.8	5.3	9.4	1.6	52.0	2.4
Tallinn (Estonia)	2004	55.4	1.0	15.1			53.7	6.1
Vienna (Austria)	2005*	74.1	0.5	6.1	11.9	0.5	68.6	3.0
Warsaw (Poland)	2005	59.5	2.7	8.4	3.1	0.0	62.0	7.7
Zurich (Switzerland)	2005	59.3	0.3	3.1	14.7	5.6	64.9	7.0
Average		63.2	2.2	8.1	12.5	2.9	55.3	5.8

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

9.2 Tables on policing and victim support

Table 11 Reporting to the police in countries: 1 year rates for 9 crimes together and 5 year rates for the individual crimes (percentages). 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

		Reporting 9 crimes (last year)	Car theft	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (2)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary (3)	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual incidents	Assault & threat
Australia	1989	53	91	55	25	92	70	84		52	45	8	36
	1992	53	92	54	27	94	76	88	47	53	39	12	39
	2000	54	92	53	36	70	63	81	41	60	38	15	43
	2004***	53	94	55		84	57	86	39	55	39		38
Austria	1996	51	100	79	33	100	70	79	30	60	52	7	22
	2005*	61	72	77		94	65	73	59	48	62	42	35
Belgium	1989	54	85	65	37	94	70	78		41	50	15	36
	1992	74	91	77	45	90	77	88	57	55	60	20	45
	2000	60	97	71	39	91	70	92	49	47	56	11	30
	2005*	63	91	75		82	51	90	49	64	60	39	37
Canada	1989	50	89	64	48	100	70	83		57	38	11	38
	1992	52	92	60	50	72	65	82	44	48	36	13	36
	1996	50	88	62	47	85	56	85	47	50	32	17	40
	2000	49	99	58	47	34	50	80	46	41	28	19	35
	2004	46	94	63		87	39	74	39	46	33	31	37
Denmark	2000	59	98	75	43	76	67	88	25	73	51	12	30
	2005*	60	85	83		85	58	82	30	43	43	39	39
England & Wales	1989	69	96	70	32	86	76	90		68	59	11	43
	1992	67	94	73	37	94	75	96	54	50	51	16	41
	1996	61	95	67	39	97	79	93	52	55	48	20	38
	2000	59	89	71	43	94	69	90	62	59	49	14	41
	2005*	59	88	69		93	70	88	47	60	60	73	36
Estonia	1993	32	100	48	46	82	27	59	19	38	29	20	22

Table 11 (Continued)

		Reporting 9 crimes (last year)	Car theft	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (2)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary (3)	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual incidents	Assault & threat
Estonia (cont.)	1995	28	86	34	32	43	32	56	27	34	27	4	22
	2000	36	86	40	35		36	63	20	40	30	11	25
	2004	42	58	48	40		49	52	23	39	29	26	26
Finland	1989	44	65	61	42	100	63	62		30	38	7	18
	1992	42	100	55	36	85	55	74	21	28	37	12	25
	1996	44		71	47	88	52	71	34	39	43	7	27
	2000	39	96	69	51	100	54	71	22	67	37	1	26
	2005*	48	93	76		82	53	68	22	41	49	27	23
France	1989	65	96	68	47	82	55	84		49	53	15	37
	1996	53	96	61	47	81	47	78	44	57	40	30	30
	2000	49	91	64	49	78	35	73	37	32	51	26	34
	2005*	56	77	64		89	48	77	45	44	47	18	40
Germany	1989	52	89	82	44	93	72	79		50	38	11	21
	2005*	52	76	79		99	67	86	51	36	43	9	24
Greece	2005*	45	73	35		46	19	71	40	34	40	12	22
Hungary	2005*	55	92	55		65	49	76	47	46	44	27	18
Iceland	2005	36	86	66		62	53	73	29	41	28	5	30
Ireland	2005*	48	86	62		79	56	85	40	38	40	6	31
Italy	1992	50	95	40	15	77	29	65	21	42	43	5	24
	2005*	58	93	48		85	36	78	34	51	61	1	35
Japan	2000	45	61	42	21	70	36	60	35	31	39	11	21
	2004	55	100	66	23	74	49	63	18	25	87	13	46
Luxembourg	2005*	48	87	71		100	50	82	57	39	52	18	29
Mexico	2004	19	3	2		0	1	3	2	2	1	3	2
Netherlands	1989	58	92	72	36	95	73	94		54	48	13	39
	1992	63	90	75	39	94	67	90	52	59	53	12	43

Table 11 (Continued)

		Reporting 9 crimes (last year)	Car theft	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (2)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary (3)	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual incidents	Assault & threat
Netherlands (cont.)	1996	55	90	72	43	88	64	85	49	70	57	14	42
	2000	60	94	77	49	90	66	91	60	63	50	17	42
	2005*	52	95	79		83	56	92	52	52	54	35	33
New Zealand	1992	65	97	64	36	89	87	89	48	49	50	12	42
	2004	59	94	65		85	63	80	37	52	44	19	44
Northern Ireland	1989	50	96	55	36	89	57	85		59	26	8	51
	1996	64	94	60	40	100	69	86	50	93	40	43	58
	2000	66	95	61	44	100	64	86	40	73	30	22	55
	2005*	58	95	64		100	47	88	54	67	43	35	51
Norway	1989	46	75	58	37	83	45	78		36	31	5	29
	2004	51	93	70		78	50	72	31	59	50	28	34
Poland	1992	34	93	53	30	89	47	49	20	31	20	8	25
	1996	36	93	45	33	79	45	54	25	37	20	12	31
	2000	42	92	47	28	69	50	62	30	40	26	18	32
	2004	46	97	52		68	44	62	32	38	30	19	38
Portugal	2000	43	76	41	23	57	32	59	26	40	34	16	33
	2005*	54	81	45		72	46	55	19	61	55	22	22
Scotland	1989	67	92	78	50	81	77	93		49	51	29	44
	1996	60	97	73	41	77	76	96	59	38	48	25	44
	2000	54	89	69	47	100	78	91	49	68	58	23	41
	2005*	57	66	75		68	59	90	66	44	53	39	53
Spain	1989	35	82	32	22	55	24	44		29	43	5	27
	2005*	48	82	58		80	35	63	34	48	46	16	38
Sweden	1992	60	97	70	51	85	67	66	31	81	50	20	29
	1996	54	90	75	63	88	59	71	43	81	56	12	28
	2000	58	98	76	57	85	61	71	37	71	47	12	36

Table 11 (Continued)

		Reporting 9 crimes (last year)	Car theft	Theft from a car	Car vandalism (2)	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burglary (3)	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual incidents	Assault & threat
Sweden (cont.)	2005*	58	93	79		91	57	77	39	49	52	61	35
Switzerland	1989	62	89	72	47	88	84	80		39	42	21	26
	1996	59	98	85	31	87	75	88	43	24	37	16	32
	2000	53	87	71	43	80	74	89	45	50	45	10	33
	2005	52	75	69		81	66	82	50	45		10	22
United Kingdom	1989	68	95	70	33	86	75	90		66	58	12	44
	1996	61	96	67	39	96	79	93	53	54	48	21	39
	2000	59	89	71	43	94	70	90	61	60	49	14	41
	2005*	58	87	68		93	64	88	48	62	59	67	37
USA	1989	53	97	60	56	87	63	80		58	41	18	42
	1996	61	90	66	51	88	47	68	52	66	36	28	45
	2000	53	95	61	48	71	54	71	45	69	31	15	53
	2004	48	87	64		65	38	77	38	61	48	35	43
Average** (1)	1st sweep	54	88	64	40	88	64	80		48	43	13	35
	2nd sweep	49	87	56	34	79	56	71	34	45	39	12	31
	3rd sweep	54	94	68	43	88	62	80	44	56	42	19	36
	4th sweep	52	91	63	43	81	58	79	40	55	41	15	36
	5th sweep	51	83	62		78	49	74	38	46	46	25	33

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Averages apply to all surveys participating in a sweep of surveys, since not every country participated every time, these averages need to be interpreted with caution (UK excluded to avoid double count).

*** Overall reporting rate for Australia based on eight crimes; sexual offences were not asked in 2004.

(1) 1st sweep: 1989 -- 2nd sweep 1992 -- 3rd sweep 1995/97 -- 4th sweep 1999-2000 -- 5th sweep 2004/05.

(2) Car vandalism was not asked in the last sweep of surveys.

(3) reporting to the police was not asked for attempted burglary in the first sweep of surveys.

Table 12 **Reporting to the police in main cities: 1 year rates for 9 crimes together and 5 year rates for the individual crimes (percentages). 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

	Year of the survey	Reporting 9 crimes	Car theft	Theft from a car	Car vandalism	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burgalry	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual incidents	Assault & threat
Amsterdam (Netherlands)	2005*	52	96	71		94	40	88	51	76	60	41	42
Athens (Greece)	2005*	40	76	45		78	37	80	28	59	45	0	17
Belfast (Northern Ireland)	2005*	52	90	52		100	35	75	52	58	48	53	52
Berlin (Germany)	2005*	62	94	77		92	66	89	40	60	61	30	39
Brussels (Belgium)	2005*	66	95	74		77	39	87	48	66	63	40	53
Budapest (Hungary)	2005*	40	93	59		56	37	76	51	41	37	58	31
Buenos Aires (Argentina)	2001	30	97	19	9	70	12	39	28	34	24	8	24
Copenhagen (Denmark)	2005*	54	91	78		76	58	83	24	51	49	26	34
Dublin (Ireland)	2005*	56	94	67		62	52	93	49	50	48	56	32
Edinburgh (Scotland)	2005*	59	87	73		100	70	84	52	39	53	44	37
Johannesburg (RSA)	2004	43	90	59	44	74	25	57	32	38	21	38	31
Helsinki (Finland)	2005*	57	96	73		45	56	69	40	64	58	22	32
Hong Kong (SAR China)	2005	24	76	28		59	6	74	29	40	29	11	33
Istanbul (Turkey)	2005	44	93	41		100	6	56	17	49	27	4	18
Lima (Peru)	2005	20	97	17		81	15	41	13	22	10	0	5
Lisbon (Portugal)	2005*	53	88	54		60	50	59	25	52	51	0	29
London (England)	2005*	57	82	56		76	49	90	49	65	55	46	35
Madrid (Spain)	2005*	62	93	59		87	36	72	35	57	54	0	38
Maputo (Mozambique)	2002	21	86	13	23	55	11	26	11	13	10	16	19
New York (USA)	2004	43	97	44		0	25	77	46	52	36	15	35
Oslo (Norway)	2004	50	96	65		100	53	69	16	78	56	28	27
Paris (France)	2005*	59	65	54		91	41	77	42	54	53	12	31
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	2001	22	100	6	9	66	8	17	27	50	10	6	32
Reykjavik (Iceland)	2005	36	79	71		73	53	70	26	40	27	5	25
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	2002	32	99	23	4	34	2	31	14	24	12	21	30

Table 12 (Continued)

	Year of the survey	Reporting 9 crimes	Car theft	Theft from a car	Car vandalism	Theft of a motorcycle	Theft of a bicycle	Burglary	Attempted burgalry	Robbery	Theft of personal property	Sexual incidents	Assault & threat
Rome (Italy)	2005*	58	94	43		91	33	73	34	51	51	11	19
Sao Paulo (Brazil)	2002	37	95	27	7	76	13	31	6	32	15	7	27
Stockholm (Sweden)	2005*	66	95	79		69	46	74	51	60	57	28	29
Sydney (Australia)	2004***	50	94	59		69	42	89	42	50	38		44
Tallinn (Estonia)	2004	39	46	42	38		43	59	24	52	32	31	38
Warsaw (Poland)	2005	44	95	55			52	77	57	39	38	20	25
Vienna (Austria)	2005*	74	89	91		100	69	91	52	50	75	37	29
Zurich (Switzerland)	2005	51	90	76		86	57	84	48	48		0	34
		47	89	53		74	37	68	35	49	41	22	31

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

*** Overall reporting rate for Australia based on eight crimes; sexual offences were not asked in 2004.

Table 13 **Reporting to the police for 5 crimes, satisfied witht the report for 5 crimes together and for the individual crimes, victim support and whether victim support would have been useful. 1996-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*. Percentages for satisfaction and victim support apply to the last of each crime in a period of 5 years**

		report to the police for 5 crimes in the last year (*)	Satisfied with report						received victim support for 4 crimes ****	victim support would have been useful
			5 crimes	Theft from a car	Burglary	Robbery***	Sexual offences***	Assault & threat***		
Australia	2000	53	71	70	75	58	70	69	5	27
	2004*****	52	69	65	75	65		66	6	27
Austria	1996	62	53	59	46	49	41	49	8	38
	2005*	70	68	77	81	50	24	38	13	26
Belgium	2000	65	62	58	69	42	22	67	4	27
	2005*	68	65	62	71	60	3	53	13	36
Canada	1996	52	73	72	77	62	68	70	9	32
	2000	48	71	71	71	63	61	74	13	31
	2004	48	65	67	63	52	42	68	14	27
Denmark	2000	62	77	74	87	77	64	56	8	31
	2005*	60	75	71	80	67	90	66	10	30
England & Wales	1996	65	72	73	75	69	74	67	20	41
	2000	64	66	63	76	57	78	60	18	32
	2005*	61	62	58	71	60	50	57	17	45
Estonia******	2004	43	33	34	31	30	51	33		
Finland	1996	53	77	78	74	63	64	81	6	36
	2000	45	74	72	77	80	100	73	2	35
	2005*	48	72	74	61	81	100	70	2	32
France	1996	53	56	56	62	44	18	59	4	27
	2000	51	47	40	52	65	42	57	2	21
	2005*	54	53	53	55	54	3	46	4	38
Germany	2005*	61	67	64	74	61	43	62	2	27
Greece	2005*	49	28	42	17	32	99	21	2	64
Hungary	2005*	58	41	45	36	40	64	39	0	43
Iceland	2005	40	55	48	74	62	46	55	6	23
Ireland	2005*	51	61	59	64	63	91	56	6	42
Italy	2005*	50	43	38	44	26	0	53	3	36

Table 13 (Continued)

		report to the police for 5 crimes in the last year (*)	Satisfied with report						received victim support for 4 crimes ****	victim support would have been useful
			5 crimes	Theft from a car	Burglary	Robbery***	Sexual offences***	Assault & threat***		
Japan	2000	44	45	37	57	32	23	26	0	41
	2004	54	44	46	49	34	17	17	8	20
Luxembourg	2005*	48	70	68	74	73	66	50	5	43
Mexico	2004	16	28	35	19	21	0	48	5	54
Netherlands	1996	58	71	72	79	72	42	58	10	22
	2000	64	70	71	74	73	75	61	13	18
	2005*	58	62	57	75	51	79	49	14	30
New Zealand	2004	57	69	67	71	65	63	71	24	36
Northern Ireland	1996	53	60	61	64	47	75	56	11	43
	2000	63	69	75	64	90	87	64	21	43
	2005*	59	61	54	63	73	89	58	21	45
Norway	2004	53	55	52	59	59	71	56	10	37
Poland	1996	35	34	33	34	28	50	40	3	52
	2000	43	39	35	40	41	35	47	4	51
	2004	46	46	42	39	60	74	55		
Portugal	2000	38	31	33	27	38	27	27	0	50
	2005*	51	58	66	49	38	18	73	4	70
Scotland	1996	67	75	77	74	76	68	70	10	35
	2000	62	73	69	80	67	90	74	12	36
	2005*	61	70	63	76	68	92	68	22	42
Spain	2005*	47	65	58	58	69	100	78	3	68
Sweden	1996	60	74	74	75	71	100	72	13	43
	2000	61	71	71	69	79	65	73	12	29
	2005*	64	67	57	80	79	59	65	9	39
Switzerland	1996	63	64	72	61	48	66	49	7	32
	2000	58	70		77	47	52	70		
	2005	63	72	72	74	59	63	74		

Table 13 (Continued)

		report to the police for 5 crimes in the last year (*)	Satisfied with report						received victim support for 4 crimes ****	victim support would have been useful
			5 crimes	Theft from a car	Burglary	Robbery***	Sexual offences***	Assault & threat***		
United Kingdom	1996	65	72	73	75	69	73	67	19	40
	2000	64	66	64	76	58	79	61	17	32
	2005*	59	61	60	70	56	50	53	16	45
USA	1996	58	67	65	69	49	84	73	11	39
	2000	53	65	65	74	49	0	68	9	36
	2004	49	57	57	54	66	29	60	16	38
Average **	3rd sweep	57	65	66	66	56	63	62	9	37
	4th sweep	55	63	60	67	60	56	60	8	34
	5th sweep	53	58	57	60	56	55	55	9	39

(*) The five crimes are theft from a car, theft of a bicycle, burglary, attempted burglary and theft of personal property.

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Averages apply to all surveys participating in a sweep of surveys. since not every country participated every time. these averages need to be interpreted with caution (UK excluded to avoid double count).

*** Satisfaction percentages apply to very few cases since number of victimisations are relatively low and reporting rates for these crimes are low. percentages need to be interpreted with caution.

**** The questions on victim support were not asked to victims of theft from a car.

***** Data are based on four crimes in Australia; Sexual offences were not asked Since reporting rates for this crime are the lowest of the five. we do not expect this ommition has much impact on the combined figure.

******The Estonian questionnaire had four reponse categories for satisfaction with report. very plus fairly satisfied have been combined and are reported here.

Table 14 **Reporting to the police for 5 crimes, satisfied witht the report for 5 crimes together and for the individual crimes, victim support and whether victim support would have been useful. 1996-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*. Percentages for satisfaction and victim support apply to the last of each crime in a period of 5 years**

		report to the police for 5 crimes in the last year (*)	Satisfied with report						received victim support for 4 crimes ****	victim support would have been useful
			5 crimes	Theft from a car	Burglary	Robbery***	Sexual offences***	Assault & threat***		
Amsterdam (Netherlands)	2005*	50	66	65	63	67	32	70	15	19
Athens (Greece)	2005*	43	29	30	20	38	0	47	3	60
Belfast (Northern Ireland)	2005*	49	58	59	51	61	95	55	19	46
Berlin (Germany)	2005*	66	63	55	76	59	56	58	9	35
Brussels (Belgium)	2005*	62	68	63	69	66	82	68	9	30
Budapest (Hungary)	2005*	42	39	41	40	23	42	36	2	45
Buenos Aires (Argentina)	2004	21	44	53	42	44	0	29	2	46
Copenhagen (Denmark)	2005*	55	73	71	80	61	93	58	10	45
Dublin (Ireland)	2005*	55	65	58	79	50	54	42	6	29
Edinburgh (Scotland)	2005*	66	68	60	80	62	83	64	7	43
Helsinki (Finland)	2005*	62	69	74	59	84	100	69	5	23
Hong Kong (SAR China)	2005	24	59	50	1	60	77	63	13	42
Istanbul (Turkey)	2005	38	33	33	36	18	100	26	2	64
Johannesburg (RSA)	2004	35	36	43	29	34	64		15	
Lima (Peru)	2005	16	18	19	10	18	36	34	1	26
Lisbon (Portugal)	2005*	44	54	49	57	58	37	55	2	66
London (England)	2005*	58	60	62	69	46	68	51	16	33
Madrid (Spain)	2005*	59	67	65	54	75	100	60	3	52
Maputo (Mozambique)	2002	17	27	43	20	22	60	36	2	54
New York (USA)	2004	38	49	40	47	43	73	69	8	56
Oslo (Norway)	2004	51	57	45	71	53	100	65	18	35
Paris (France)	2005*	61	53	64	45	41	45	44	5	21
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	2001	14	49	40	55	47	0	45	3	71
Reykjavik (Iceland)	2005	41	52	49	74	42	38	46	7	26
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	2002	18	59	68	47	60	58	61		83
Rome (Italy)	2005*	44	43	49	36	35	0	39	4	37
Sao Paulo (Brazil)	2002	12	32	35	9	35	0	50		93

Table 14 (Continued)

		report to the police for 5 crimes in the last year (*)	Satisfied with report						received victim support for 4 crimes ****	victim support would have been useful
			5 crimes	Theft from a car	Burglary	Robbery***	Sexual offences***	Assault & threat***		
Stockholm (Sweden)	2005*	68	75	60	84	77	100	64	11	35
Sydney (Australia)	2004**	51	65	60	74	55		62	5	35
Tallinn (Estonia)*****	2004	37	25	34	31	30	51	33		
Vienna (Austria)	2005*	81	71	76	69	54	0	54	5	27
Warsaw (Poland)	2005	50	39	35	36	50	25	41		
Zurich (Switzerland)	2005	65	76	73	86	62	100	67		
Average	5th sweep	45	53	52	52	49	55	52	7	44

(*) The five crimes are theft from a car, theft of a bicycle, burglary, attempted burglary and theft of personal property.

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Data are based on four/three crimes in Australia; Sexual offences were not asked Since reporting rates for this crime are the lowest of the five/four crimes. we do not expect this ommition has much impact on the combined figure.

*** Satisfaction percentages apply to very few cases since number of victimisations are relatively low and reporting rates for these crimes are low. percentages need to be interpreted with caution.

**** The questions on victim support were not asked to victims of theft from a car.

***** The Estonian questionnaire had four reponse categories for satisfaction with report. very plus fairly satisfied have been combined and are reported here.

Table 15 Do the police do a good job in controlling crime in your local area (percentage good plus very good) in countries and main cities. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

Country surveys	1st sweep	2nd sweep	3rd sweep	4th sweep	5th sweep		*Main city surveys*	5th sweep
Australia	73	72		76	82		Amsterdam (Netherlands) *	70
Austria			54		81	*	Athens (Greece) *	45
Belgium	53	47		64	71	*	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	67
Canada	89	82	80	87	86		Berlin (Germany) *	62
Denmark				71	82	*	Brussels (Belgium) *	58
England & Wales	70	66	68	72	75	*	Budapest (Hungary) *	69
Estonia		15	16	31	47		Buenos Aires (Argentina)	37
Finland	64	53	55	70	89	*	Copenhagen (Denmark) *	79
France	62		56	65	60	*	Dublin (Ireland) *	81
Germany	67				74	*	Edinburgh (Scotland)	81
Greece					57	*	Helsinki (Finland) *	85
Hungary					70	*	Hong Kong (SAR China)	94
Ireland					78	*	Istanbul (Turkey)	44
Italy		50			65	*	Lisbon (Portugal) *	66
Japan				64			London (England) *	76
Luxembourg					62	*	Madrid (Spain) *	53
Mexico					44		New York (USA)	86
Netherlands	58	50	45	52	70	*	Oslo (Norway)	70
New Zealand		79			84		Paris (France) *	62
Northern Ireland	63		63	67	70		Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	65
Norway	70				73		Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	29
Poland		37	27	46	41		Rome (Italy) *	57
Portugal				45	67	*	Sao Paulo (Brazil)	36
Scotland	71		69	77	79		Stockholm (Sweden) *	60
Spain	53				58	*	Sydney (Australia)	81
Sweden		58	61	61	65	*	Tallinn (Estonia)	42
Switzerland	50		55	67	69		Vienna (Austria) *	77
United Kingdom	70		68	73	75	*	Warsaw (Poland)	35
USA	80		77	89	88		Zurich (Switzerland)	68
Average**	66	55	57	65	70		Average	63

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Averages apply to all surveys participating in a sweep of surveys, since not every country participated every time, these averages need to be interpreted with caution (UK excluded to avoid double count).

9.3 Reactions to crime and firearm ownership

Table 16 Reactions to crime: Home security measures, people prefering a prison sentence for a recidivist burglar, feelings of unsafety on the streets and assessment of burglary risks (percentages) in countries. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS*

	Year of the survey	Percentage of housholds with a burglar alarm	Percentage of house-holds with special door locks	Percentage of the population prefering a prison sentence after repeated burglary	Percentage of popu-lation feeling unsafe on the street after dark	Percentage of popu-lation thinking a burglary next year is likely or very likely
Australia	1989	16		36		44
	1992	14	60	34	31	47
	2000	26	67	37	34	36
	2004	27	67	33	27	36
Austria	1996	6	37	10	20	13
	2005*	14	58	13	19	21
Belgium	1989	15		26		28
	1992	12	25	19	20	31
	2000	21	50	21	21	45
	2005*	22	49	17	26	33
Bulgaria	2004	3	20	50	53	31
Canada	1989	15		32		33
	1992	13	42	39	20	33
	1996	20	52	43	26	30
	2000	23	53	45	16	29
	2004	28	48	44	17	25
Denmark	2000	7	21	20	17	20
	2005*	9	32	18	17	14
England & Wales	1989	24		38		35
	1992	22	68	37	33	45
	1996	27	68	49	32	41
	2000	34	69	51	26	33
	2005*	42	62	51	32	35
Estonia	1993	1	2	43	47	55
	1995	3	18	39	41	28
	2000	4	23	24	41	43
	2004	6	40	26	34	30
Finland	1989	2		15		9
	1992	1	20	14	17	14
	1996	2		18	17	11
	2000	4	37	19	18	13
	2005*	9	45	15	14	na

Table 16 (Continued)

	Year of the survey	Percentage of housholds with a burglar alarm	Percentage of house-holds with special door locks	Percentage of the population prefering a prison sentence after repeated burglary	Percentage of popu-lation feeling unsafe on the street after dark	Percentage of popu-lation thinking a burglary next year is likely or very likely
France	1989	14		13		36
	1996	15	34	11	20	53
	2000	13	40	12	22	44
	2005*	15	38	13	21	38
Germany	1989	10		13		54
	2005*	14	63	19	30	23
Greece	2005*	14	46	30	42	49
Hungary	2005*	15	55	29	26	23
Iceland	2005	9	11	16	6	
Ireland	2005*	49	55	38	27	33
Italy	1992	13	36	22	35	38
	2005*	24	59	24	35	43
Japan	2000	3	10	51	22	34
	2004	6	15	55	35	48
Luxembourg	2005*	22	52	16	36	34
Mexico	2004	5	19	70	34	37
Netherlands	1989	9		26		28
	1992	8	59	26	22	28
	1996	10	68	31	20	27
	2000	11	70	37	18	19
	2005*	15	78	32	18	18
New Zealand	1992	10	43	26	38	53
	2004	38	60	40	30	36
Northern Ireland	1989	8		45		23
	1996	11	35	49	22	29
	2000	16	40	54	22	26
	2005*	38	57	53	26	29
Norway	1989	7		14		21
	2004	28	37	29	14	21
Poland	1992	1	16	31	43	40
	1996	1	15	17	34	24
	2000	2	17	21	34	26
	2004	3	18	34	32	25
Portugal	2000	8	36	26	27	58
	2005*	14	56	15	34	35

Table 16 (Continued)

	Year of the survey	Percentage of housholds with a burglar alarm	Percentage of house-holds with special door locks	Percentage of the population prefering a prison sentence after repeated burglary	Percentage of popu-lation feeling unsafe on the street after dark	Percentage of popu-lation thinking a burglary next year is likely or very likely
Scotland (cont.)	1989	20		39		30
	1996	25	62	48	26	28
	2000	26	65	52	19	23
	2005*	33	67	49	30	21
Spain	1989	4		27		41
	2005*	8	48	17	33	26
Sweden	1992	5	44	26	14	34
	1996	7	38	22	11	16
	2000	10	43	31	15	16
	2005*	16	46	33	19	17
Switzerland	1989	6		9		46
	1996	5	29	9	17	29
	2000				22	27
	2005			12		26
United Kingdom	1989**	15		39		30
	1996**	25	62	48	27	29
	2000**	26	65	52	20	23
	2005*	41	60	52	31	34
USA	1989	16		53		31
	1992					
	1996	21	58	56	25	23
	2000	24	53	56	14	16
	2004	28	60	47	19	16
Averages (2)(3)	1st sweep	12		27		33
	2nd sweep	9	38	29	29	38
	3rd sweep	12	43	31	24	27
	4th sweep	14	43	35	23	30
	5th sweep	19	47	31	27	29

* Source: van Dijk, J.J.M., Manchin, R., van Kesteren, J.N., Hideg, G. (2007). The Burden of Crime in the EU, a Comparative Analysis of the European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Data for United Kingdom 1989,1996 and 2000 are computed using the separate surveys for England & Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland (weighted by population size).

(2) Averages apply to all surveys participating in a sweep of surveys, since not every country participated every time, these averages need to be interpreted with caution (UK excluded to avoid double count).

(3) 1st sweep: 1989 -- 2nd sweep 1992 -- 3rd sweep 1995/97 -- 4th sweep 1999-2000 -- 5th sweep 2004/05.

Table 17 **Reactions to crime: Home security measures, people prefering a prison sentence for a recidivist burglar, feelings of unsafety on the streets and assessment of burglary risks (percentages) in capital cities. 2001-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

	Year of the survey	Percentage of housholds with a burglar alarm	Percentage of house-holds with special door locks	Percentage of the population prefering a prison sentence after repeated burglary	Percentage of popu-lation feeling unsafe on the street after dark	Percentage of popu-lation thinking a burglary next year is likely or very likely
Amsterdam (Netherlands)	2005*	11	80	30	22	22
Athens (Greece)	2005*	21	70	26	55	73
Belfast (Northern Ireland)	2005*	32	57	55	34	33
Berlin (Germany)	2005*	11	64	22	31	25
Brussels (Belgium)	2005*	18	41	11	33	38
Budapest (Hungary)	2005*	18	72	28	39	21
Buenos Aires (Argentina)	2004	12	26	54	66	48
Copenhagen (Denmark)	2005*	10	45	19	21	14
Dublin (Ireland)	2005*	71	66	38	29	39
Edinburgh (Scotland)	2005*	36	65	42	24	19
Helsinki (Finland)	2005*	13	75	13	25	59
Hong Kong (SAR China)	2005	14	25	58	5	26
Istanbul (Turkey)	2005	7	29	53	51	75
Johannesburg (RSA)	2004	10	29	76	57	46
Lima (Peru)	2005	5	23	56	48	70
Lisbon (Portugal)	2005*	16	66	15	49	40
London (England)	2005*	30	62	44	42	40
Madrid (Spain)	2005*	9	56	20	47	33
Maputo (Mozambique)	2002	1	14	42	65	56
New York (USA)	2004	25	62	47	22	16
Oslo (Norway)	2004	38	72	24	18	24
Paris (France)	2005*	6	54	12	22	34
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	2001	1	73	64	48	20
Reykjavik (Iceland)	2005	12	13	18	9	
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	2002	3	17		57	58
Rome (Italy)	2005*	26	73	24	44	46
Sao Paulo (Brazil)	2002	5	16		72	72
Stockholm (Sweden)	2005*	29	62	28	21	25
Sydney (Australia)	2004	34	78	33	27	33
Tallinn (Estonia)	2004	11	62	29	49	39
Vienna (Austria)	2005*	12	70	16	21	36
Warsaw (Poland)	2005	5	46	19	41	27
Zurich (Switzerland)	2005			11		25
Average		17	52	33	37	39

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

Table 18 **Ownership of firearms and handguns in countries and main cities (percentages). 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS***

	1st sweep 1989		2nd sweep 1992 -1994		3rd sweep 1995-1998		4th sweep 1999-2003		5th sweep 2004-2005					
Countries	firearm	handgun	firearm	handgun	firearm	handgun	firearm	handgun	firearm	handgun		*Main cities*	firearm	handgun	
Australia	20.1	1.6	16.0	1.6			8.7	1.1	6.2	0.3		Amsterdam (Netherlands)	1.5	0.7	*
Austria					15.3	8.1			15.1	5.6	*	Athens (Greece)	10.8	2.1	*
Belgium	16.5	6.4	15.6	6.7			11.4	4.3	11.4	5.2	*	Belfast (Northern Ireland)	1.8	0.3	
Bulgaria									9.7	6.6		Berlin (Germany)	7.6	3.8	*
Canada	31.0	5.2	26.0	3.9	20.8	2.3	17.0	1.8	15.5	2.9		Brussels (Belgium)	5.4	2.5	*
Denmark							11.7	1.0	12.6	1.2	*	Budapest (Hungary)	8.0	2.9	*
England & Wales	4.7	0.4	4.2	0.6	3.9	0.5	3.1	0.1	6.1	0.5	*	Buenos Aires (Argentina)	8.8	6.8	
Estonia			7.5	1.9	8.3	3.0	7.4	3.5	7.0	3.6		Copenhagen (Denmark)	6.9	1.4	*
Finland	25.5	7.2	25.4	6.3	28.8	6.0	23.7	6.4	37.9	6.3	*	Dublin (Ireland)	2.2	0.1	*
France	25.3	5.9			22.6	4.9	18.2	2.8	16.1	3.7	*	Edinburgh (Scotland)	2.0	0.2	
Germany	9.2	6.7							12.5	4.2	*	Johannesburg (RSA)	8.4	0.4	
Greece									20.6	1.4	*	Helsinki (Finland)	16.2	4.6	*
Hungary									10.4	2.2	*	Hong Kong (SAR China)	0.0	0.0	
Iceland									23.5	1.4		Istanbul (Turkey)	10.1	6.0	
Ireland									12.4	1.0	*	Lima (Peru)	6.9	6.0	
Italy			16.1	5.5					12.9	5.3	*	Lisbon (Portugal)	12.1	3.7	*
Japan							0.3	0.0	0.8	0.0		London (England)	1.8	0.0	*
Luxembourg									12.3	7.0	*	Madrid (Spain)	10.0	2.0	*
Mexico									0.0	2.8		Maputo (Mozambique)	3.0	2.8	
Netherlands	2.0	0.9	2.0	1.4	2.3	0.9	1.7	0.8	4.8	1.3	*	New York (USA)	8.1	3.7	
New Zealand			24.4	1.6					16.6	0.6		Oslo (Norway)	13.7	2.9	
Northern Ireland	9.4	1.5							12.7	2.1		Paris (France)	4.1	2.1	*
Norway	31.5	3.7							26.1	3.7		Reykjavic (Iceland)	15.9	0.6	
Poland			2.5	1.1	4.7	1.0	3.7	1.3	4.4	0.9		Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)		3.0	
Portugal							13.2	4.3	18.3	3.9	*	Rome (Italy)	9.9	5.7	*
Scotland	5.1	0.4			4.2	0.4	3.1	0.1	6.7	0.7		Sao Paulo (Brazil)		0.5	
Spain	12.7	2.0							12.0	0.5	*	Stockholm (Sweden)	10.1	1.3	*
Sweden			15.9	1.5	16.2	1.7	15.9	1.7	19.3	1.6	*	Sydney (Australia)	2.4	0.1	
Switzerland	32.8	13.9			35.3	13.8	35.7	11.8	28.6	10.3		Tallinn (Estonia)	5.1	4.3	
United Kingdom	5.2	0.5			4.1	0.4	3.0	0.1	6.0	0.4	*	Vienna (Austria)	8.9	5.2	*
USA	49.1	28.6	0.0	0.0	43.6	25.1	33.5	17.7	42.8	17.6		Warsaw (Poland)	1.8	1.2	
												Zurich (Switzerland)	16.2	6.8	
Average**	18.7	5.7	13.0	2.7	16.2	5.2	12.4	3.5	14.2	3.4		Average	7.0	2.5	

* Source: European Survey of Crime and Safety (2005 EU ICS). Brussels, Gallup Europe.

** Averages apply to all surveys participating in a sweep of surveys, since not every country participated every time, these averages need to be interpreted with caution (UK excluded to avoid double count).

9.4 Data used in computations of indices and regression

Table 19 Computation of the police Performance Index

	Sweep	Reporting 5 crimes	Percentiles	Satisfied with report	Percentiles	Police good job in controling crime	Percentiles	Sum of percentiles	Police Performance Index*
		appendix 8 table 14		appendix 8 table 14		appendix 8 table 15			
Australia	4	53	49	71	77	76	75	202	88
	5	52	43	69	66	82	88	197	84
Austria	5	70	100	68	63	81	86	248	99
Belgium	4	65	93	62	45	64	38	177	77
	5	68	98	65	52	71	65	216	92
Buenos Aires	5	21	8	44	19	37	6	33	54
Bulgaria	5	35	12	40	14	53	20	46	57
Canada	3	52	43	73	88	80	84	216	92
	4	48	29	71	77	87	94	200	87
	5	48	29	65	52	86	92	173	76
Denmark	4	62	80	77	99	71	65	244	97
	5	60	70	75	96	82	88	254	100
England & Wales	3	65	93	72	84	68	52	228	94
	4	64	89	66	56	72	67	213	90
	5	61	74	62	45	75	73	192	82
Estonia	5	43	18	33	9	47	17	44	55
Finland	3	53	49	77	99	55	23	171	75
	4	45	22	74	92	70	60	174	77
	5	48	29	72	84	89	98	210	89
France	3	53	49	56	30	56	25	104	63
	4	51	39	47	23	65	43	105	64
	5	54	55	53	27	60	30	111	65
Germany	5	61	74	67	59	74	70	204	88
Greece	5	49	34	28	2	57	27	63	59
Hong Kong	5	24	9	59	35	94	100	145	69
Hungary	5	58	61	41	16	70	60	137	68
Ireland	5	51	39	61	41	78	81	161	73
Istanbul	5	38	15	33	9	44	10	34	55
Italy	5	50	36	43	17	65	43	96	62
Japan	4	44	20	45	20	64	38	79	61
Luxembourg	5	48	29	70	71	62	34	134	67
Mexico	5	16	5	28	2	44	10	17	52
Netherlands	3	58	61	71	77	45	13	152	70
	4	64	89	70	71	52	19	179	78
	5	58	61	62	45	70	60	166	73

Table 19 (Continued)

	Sweep	Reporting 5 crimes	Percentiles	Satisfied with report	Percentiles	Police good job in controling crime	Percentiles	Sum of percentiles	Police Performance Index*
		appendix 8 table 14		appendix 8 table 14		appendix 8 table 15			
New Zealand	5	57	56	69	66	84	91	213	90
Northern Ireland	3	53	49	60	38	63	36	123	66
	4	63	84	69	66	67	48	198	85
	5	59	66	61	41	70	60	167	74
Norway	5	53	49	55	28	73	69	146	70
Phnom Penh	5	14	3	49	25	65	43	71	60
Poland	3	35	12	34	11	27	2	24	52
	4	43	18	39	13	46	16	46	57
	5	46	23	46	22	41	8	53	59
Portugal	4	38	15	31	5	45	13	33	54
	5	51	39	58	33	67	48	120	66
Rio de Janeiro	5	18	6	59	35	29	3	45	56
Sao Paulo	5	12	2	32	6	36	5	13	51
Scotland	3	67	96	75	96	69	55	247	98
	4	62	80	73	88	77	78	246	98
	5	61	74	70	71	79	83	228	94
Spain	5	47	25	65	52	58	28	105	64
Sweden	3	60	70	74	92	61	32	194	83
	4	61	74	71	77	61	32	184	80
	5	64	89	67	59	65	43	191	81
Switzerland	3	63	84	64	48	55	23	155	71
	4	58	61	70	71	67	48	180	80
	5	63	84	72	84	69	55	223	93
United Kingdom	3	67	96	74	92	69	55	243	96
	4	62	80	72	84	77	78	241	95
	5	59	66	61	41	75	73	180	79
USA	3	58	61	67	59	77	78	198	85
	4	53	49	65	52	89	98	199	86
	5	49	34	57	31	88	95	160	72

The index starts at 50 as lowest value and 100 as highest, the index is not computed for the surveys with any value missing.

Table 20 Data used for regression analysis (presented in chapter 1)

Country	Percentage of population aged 15-29*	Percentage urban population 2003**	GDP***	Response rates	Vic
Australia	21	92	26.6	55	16.3
Austria	19	68	28.6	26	11.6
Belgium	18	98	26.7	54	17.7
Bulgaria	21	68	6.9	83	14.1
Canada	20	79	28.7	66	17.2
Denmark	17	85	30.0	44	18.8
UK	19	90	25.7	43	21.0
Estonia	22	70	11.7	52	20.2
Finland	19	59	25.9	57	12.7
France	19	76	26.2	47	12.0
Germany	17	88	26.3	43	13.1
Greece	21	61	18.2	44	12.3
Hungary	22	65	13.1	53	10.0
Iceland	22		29.6	69	21.2
Ireland	24	60	32.9	42	21.9
Italy	17	67	25.6	54	12.6
Japan	20	79	25.7	70	9.4
Luxembourg	18		56.5	36	12.7
Mexico	29	75	8.7		18.7
Netherlands	18	90	27.3	47	19.7
New Zealand	22	86	20.5	49	21.5
Norway	19	76	36.0	33	15.8
Poland	25	63	10.2	72	15.0
Portugal	22	68	17.8	43	10.4
Spain	21	78	20.7	40	9.1
Sweden	18	83	25.3	55	16.1
Zwitzerland	18	68	28.4	70	18.1
USA	21	78	35.2	66	17.5

Sources:

* Percentage of the population aged 15-29: Demographic Yearbook 2005 UN Statistics Division.

** Percentage urban population: World Development Indicators 2005. UN Statistics Division.

*** GDP: World Economic forum 2003.

Table 21a Details by country on types of car theft (percentages) in countries for which data is available from at least three times. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS

	Joyriding (car was returned after theft)					Car was not returned after theft				
	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003/2004	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003/2004
Australia	1.9	2.8		1.6	0.9	0.4	0.4		0.3	0.2
Belgium	0.5	0.8		0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3		0.2	0.2
Canada	0.6	1.0	1.2	1.1	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
England & Wales	1.4	2.8	1.8	1.4	1.2	0.4	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6
Estonia		0.6	1.4	0.5	0.3		0.1	0.5	0.4	0.2
Finland	0.3	0.7	0.4		0.4	0.1	0.0	0.1		0.0
France	1.8		1.2	1.2	0.4	0.5		0.4	0.5	0.2
Netherlands	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4
Northern Ireland	1.4		1.2	0.9	1.1	0.3		0.3	0.3	0.4
Poland		0.5	0.4	0.5	0.2		0.2	0.5	0.6	0.4
Scotland	0.6		1.3	0.5	0.2	0.2		0.3	0.2	0.1
Sweden		1.7	1.1	1.2	0.5		0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
USA	1.7		1.6	0.4	0.7	0.4		0.3	0.1	0.4
Average	1.0	1.2	1.1	0.8	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3

Table 21b Details by country on types of car theft (percentages) in countries for which data is available from less then three times. 1989-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS

	Joyriding (car was returned after theft)					Car was not returned after theft				
	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003/2004	1988	1991	1995	1999	2003/2004
Austria			0.1		0.1			0.1		0.0
Bulgaria					1.3					1.1
Denmark				1.0	0.9				0.0	0.4
Germany	0.2				0.1	0.2				0.1
Greece					0.2					0.1
Hungary					0.1					0.2
Iceland					0.7					0.2
Ireland					1.0					0.2
Italy		1.1			0.4		1.6			0.5
Japan				0.1	0.1				0.0	0.0
Luxembourg					0.3					0.3
Mexico					0.3					0.6
New Zealand		2.2			1.3		0.5			0.4
Norway	1.0				0.6	0.1				0.1
Portugal				0.8	1.1				0.1	0.4
Switzerland	0.0		0.0		0.1	0.0		0.0		0.1
Average	na	na	na	na	0.5	na	na	na	na	0.3

Table 22a Use of weapons in contact crimes: Number of victims (in a period of 5 years) percentage any weapon present and percentages knives and guns present for robberies, sexual offences and assaults & threats in countries. 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS

	Robbery				Sexual offences (women)				Assault & threat			
		type of weapon				type of weapon				type of weapon		
Countries	N	% Weapon	% Knife	% Gun	N	% Weapon	% Knife	% Gun	N	% Weapon	% Knife	% Gun
Australia	255	37	16	2					1008	28	8	2
Austria	45	19	10	6	127	6	4	0	172	23	10	3
Belgium	89	29	17	7	41	0	0	0	187	19	8	1
Bulgaria	30	13	3	0	5	0	0	0	57	18	4	0
Canada	56	34	11	11	85	4	1	2	227	18	4	3
Denmark	59	23	8	7	67	10	1	7	191	14	2	3
England & Wales	110	39	17	10	53	10	9	0	245	24	11	0
Estonia	126	17	7	2	37	0	0	0	146	0	0	0
Finland	47	9	7	0	65	0	0	0	259	4	1	0
France	52	16	9	5	28	3	3	0	179	23	12	4
Germany	36	35	13	6	117	2	0	0	246	18	8	3
Greece	94	20	3	3	99	2	2	0	136	7	1	0
Hungary	60	9	7	0	23	0	0	0	132	8	5	0
Iceland	39	23	20	0	85	0	0	0	308	17	5	1
Ireland	104	35	18	3	84	0	0	0	281	15	5	0
Italy	53	33	17	12	30	0	0	0	83	12	5	4
Japan	8	0	0	0	32	0	0	0	24	13	0	0
Luxembourg	47	26	15	3	31	4	4	0	79	3	1	2
Mexico	196	63	29	30	62	8	3	2	147	40	11	16
Netherlands	69	16	8	1	89	2	0	0	280	17	8	4
New Zealand	72	42	19	6	118	1	0	1	351	19	4	2
Northern Ireland	62	41	23	7	74	3	2	0	303	25	5	6
Norway	96	37	16	9	190	6	3	0	428	18	8	1
Poland	253	23	11	1	90	0	0	0	439	15	6	2
Portugal	103	43	27	8	26	4	0	4	111	21	13	1
Scotland	68	40	19	2	77	5	3	0	303	24	13	1
Spain	119	37	22	6	20	6	1	5	196	20	15	1
Sweden	55	24	9	1	111	0	0	0	251	11	3	2
Switzerland	115	29	24	3	210	6	5	1	355	25	13	4
United Kingdom	119	36	16	9	55	10	8	0	269	23	10	1
USA	41	36	16	14	112	9	2	5	224	17	3	6
Average *(sum)*	*2558*	28	14.0	5.5	*2186*	3	1.6	0.9	*7347*	17	6.4	2.4

Table 22b Use of weapons in contact crimes: Number of victims (in a period of 5 years) percentage any weapon present and percentages knives and guns present for robberies, sexual offences and assaults & threats in main cities. 2004-2005 ICVS and 2005 EU ICS

	Robbery				Sexual offences (women)				Assault & threat			
		type of weapon				type of weapon				type of weapon		
Main cities	N	% Weapon	% Knife	% Gun	N	% Weapon	% Knife	% Gun	N	% Weapon	% Knife	% Gun
Amsterdam (Netherlands)	39	39	22	10	47	8	7	0	163	20	11	2
Athens (Greece)	39	39	17	0	65	0	0	0	96	24	7	3
Belfast (Northern Ireland)	60	26	15	4	32	20	12	0	188	28	4	6
Berlin (Germany)	38	35	19	5	40	0	0	0	132	14	6	1
Brussels (Belgium)	72	35	19	10	6	14	0	14	86	24	10	10
Budapest (Hungary)	58	21	19	1	17	0	0	0	102	7	6	0
Buenos Aires (Argentina)	698	19	5	13	69	8	3	5	206	9	4	2
Copenhagen (Denmark)	64	30	11	6	91	12	7	2	162	17	4	6
Dublin (Ireland)	51	34	14	5	25	1	0	0	131	18	5	3
Edinburgh (Scotland)	46	28	21	0	34	5	2	0	163	21	6	0
Helsinki (Finland)	49	18	15	0	56	0	0	0	165	11	5	1
Hong Kong (SAR China)	44	21	14	0	45	12	10	0	85	14	5	0
Istanbul (Turkey)	51	52	41	7	36	9	9	0	41	40	29	10
Johannesburg (RSA)	300	68	17	47	68	41	21	17	250	36	10	13
Lima (Peru)	1286	50	32	11	287	4	2	1	1500	0	0	0
Lisbon (Portugal)	80	37	28	5	12	3	3	0	70	24	19	3
London (England)	90	26	18	0	48	9	9	0	188	23	16	0
Madrid (Spain)	69	51	36	6	16	12	12	0	111	29	25	2
Maputo (Mozambique)	275	37	24	4	62	23	15	5	223	43	26	7
New York (USA)	59	56	20	27	62	2	2	0	133	34	14	10
Oslo (Norway)	17	55	22	10	31	0	0	0	66	31	16	3
Paris (France)	42	28	23	1	19	0	0	0	80	22	10	3
Phnom Penh (Cambodia)	91	76	4	66	18	16	4	6	148	26	4	13
Reykjavik (Iceland)	17	28	28	0	36	0	0	0	128	20	8	0
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)	122	66	4	55	12	12	0	12	48	46	2	39
Rome (Italy)	28	53	26	15	20	3	3	0	36	13	9	0
Sao Paulo (Brazil)	123	70	10	51	19	5	0	5	50	42	0	35
Stockholm (Sweden)	21	22	5	10	44	4	0	4	136	12	3	1
Sydney (Australia)	69	33	11	4	0				198	34	10	3
Tallinn (Estonia)	60	17	9	2	17	0	0	0	45	0	0	0
Vienna (Austria)	27	34	24	7	58	0	0	0	117	11	7	2
Zurich (Switzerland)	27	41	22	11	31	3	0	0	50	30	20	4
Average *(sum)*	*4113*	38.8	18.6	12.4	*1425*	7.3	3.9	2.2	*5301*	22.6	9.4	5.7

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